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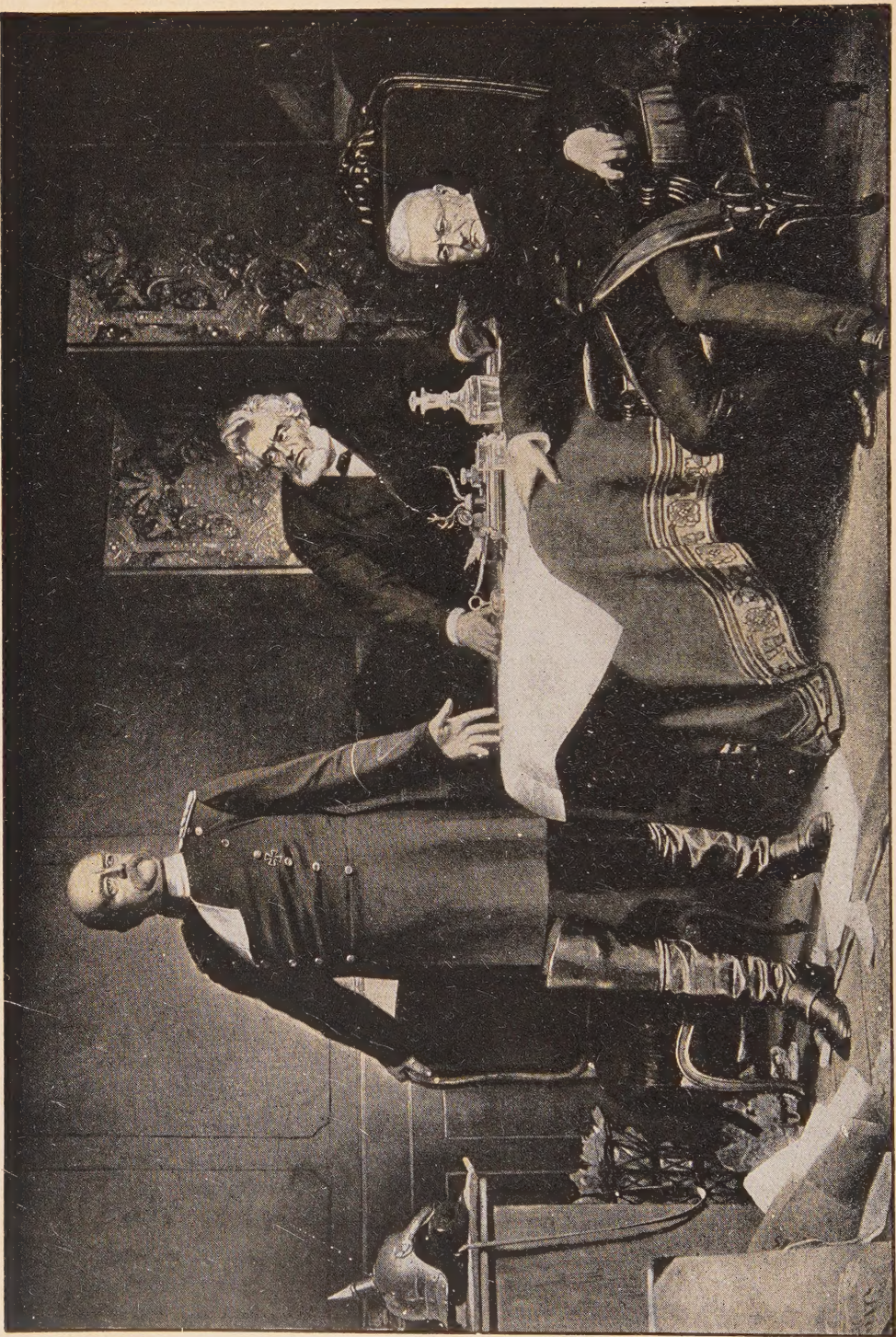
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BISMARCK AT VERSAILLES

From the Painting by Carl Wagner

THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE WORLD

A NARRATIVE OF POLITICAL EVENTS AND A RECORD OF CIVILIZATION
FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT,
EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF HUMAN PROGRESS
AND ACHIEVEMENT, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELI-
GION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.

BY
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"History of the British-Boer War," and Other Works; Also Author of a Series of Forty
Historical Maps; Member of the American Historical Association.*

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Complete in Ten Volumes

VOLUME VIII—MODERN HISTORY—CONTINUED

Illustrated with Maps, Portraits and Diagrams

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INTRODUCTION

By WALTER LYNWOOD FLEMING, A. M., PH. D.

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THE hundred years following the downfall of Napoleon were marked by greater changes than had occurred in the previous 1800 years since the Christian era. The most revolutionary of these changes resulted in the development of popular government, the extension of the industrial revolution from England to the rest of the civilized world, the rise of new states outside of Europe, the colonization of the undeveloped regions by countries of Western civilization, the development of natural science with its immense influence upon the life and thought of people, and the extension of general education with freedom of religion and freedom of thought to the masses of the people in all civilized countries.

But the statesmen of the old regime who met at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, foresaw none of these marvelous developments. They planned to put things back as nearly as possible as they were before the French Revolution swept Europe and brought to the peoples new ideals of freedom, of government and of nationality. The peoples of Central and Western Europe would not accept the restoration of the old order. In three rather distinct revolutionary movements, culminating about 1830, 1848 and 1870, they shook off the old political institutions and set up modern constitutional governments over national states. One by one the German states gained constitutions and under the lead of Prussia formed a great consolidated empire in 1871. In France, the houses of Bourbon, of Orleans and of Bonaparte were in turn expelled and the Third Republic arose. Great Britain changed from a limited oligarchy to a constitutional democratic monarchy. Italy, under the leadership of Piedmont and the House of Savoy, became a constitutional monarchy with the capitol at Rome and the political power of the Pope then disappeared. Even backward Spain and Austria made some slight progress toward popular government. In Russia and Turkey there was little political growth. But along with this rapid development of national, constitutional states, came intense national rivalries which finally culminated in the World War of 1914.

Of even more importance than the political changes, was the industrial revolution which began in England in the eighteenth century and spread in the next hundred years to the Western countries of Europe and the other leading states of the world. The factory system, based on inventions in machinery, has changed the life of millions of people, and in former waste places great cities have arisen populated by the workmen and those who sell the workman's

INTRODUCTION

products. Both labor and capital have become strongly organized and each has endeavored to shape government to its own ends, a rivalry often more stubborn than the dynastic rivalries of the older days. With the industrial revolution came the need of wider markets for manufactured products and world trade then developed. The oceans were joined by canals; steamships, the telegraph, cables and wireless brought distant places near and the nations of the world, in spite of political rivalry, were drawn together or repelled by economic interests.

In the competition for trade, colonies were an asset. From the inefficient hands of Spain and Portugal, the old colonial empires were gradually taken away. Great Britain, with her firm control of the sea, secured the best of the undeveloped parts of the world and the British Empire became not only the leader in commerce but a great commonwealth of nations, including many races, both backward and enlightened, under many different kinds of governments, all supporting the mother country in peace and war, and all satisfied, except restless India and Ireland, and therefore on the whole justifying the British imperial colonial policy.

France, Italy and Germany came along much later in the race for colonies and secured less desirable lands. The United States, somewhat reluctantly, became a colonial power, partly as a result of the Spanish-American War and partly because of the development of its Caribbean policy and the Monroe Doctrine. During the century, Russia, thrown back from southern seaports, has sprawled clear across northern Asia to the Pacific Ocean and now after a hundred years of the unanswered Near Eastern question, we have also a Far Eastern problem. Even little Belgium accidentally picked up a huge colony in Africa. In this way, the islands of the seas, almost the whole of the continent of Africa and much of Asia have passed under the dominion of states of European civilization, and western influence has penetrated and to some extent awakened the Orient and Africa. But this competition for trade, this wrangle for colonies, also furnished causes of irritation among the new national states and was one of the influences which helped to bring about the World War of 1914.

During this eventful century, powerful new states arose on the other side of the Atlantic. The small English settlements along the Atlantic seaboard grew into the United States which, for a time, racked by the growing pains of expansion and by controversies over ideals of government and over Negro slavery, divided by Civil War and the resulting reconstruction, finally consolidated into one of the most powerful of the world states and now almost holds the balance of power in the world. Through its policy known as the Monroe Doctrine, the United States has prevented the extension of European colonization in the Americas. It aided the independence and fostered the growth of the Latin American peoples from weak colonies to free and well-established states reaching from Texas to Cape Horn. In the Pacific, Japan, an oriental state, became a first-class power. The Americas and Japan tried to remain outside of the

INTRODUCTION

European system but the War of 1914 finally brought in the United States, Japan, Brazil and smaller states, proof of the difficulty in this day of remaining aloof in world affairs.

When Napoleon was safely caged in St. Helena, the common man was disregarded in political matters; he was uneducated, with little opportunity for gaining an education; he was limited as to freedom of work, of thinking and of believing; and he lived in a poor habitation in unsanitary surroundings swept by disease and pestilence. At the end of the century, the children of the common man were in school in all civilized countries. The man himself had a part in the government and in the molding of public opinion. He was allowed to work when and where he pleased, to rise out of his class if he had the ability. He was free to think and to believe. Science had conquered the worst of disease and had checked the sweep of the periodic pestilence. Democracy had almost arrived, but the clashing of wrongly directed national feelings had resulted in the greatest war of all history. The problem of the next century is to find a way to permanent national peace and good will.

Walter L Fleming

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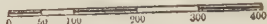
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MAP OF EUROPE

After Treaty of Vienna (A.D. 1815)

By I. S. Clare.

SCALE OF MILES.





CHAPTER XLI.

REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE.

SECTION I.—NEW STATES-SYSTEM AND HOLY ALLIANCE (A. D. 1815).

THE Congress of Vienna in 1815 had reconstructed the map of Europe, restoring to the different powers the territories which Napoleon had wrested from them. Holland and Belgium became one kingdom, entitled *The Netherlands*, under the House of Orange, or Nassau. Poland became a separate kingdom, with a Diet and constitution of its own, under the Czar of Russia. Norway was transferred from the King of Denmark to the King of Sweden; but each of these two Scandinavian kingdoms had its own constitution and its own Diet; the Diet, or Storting, of Norway being very democratic in its popular branch. Prussia recovered all her lost territories and received in addition a large part of Saxony. Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg and Hanover were recognized as kingdoms. The Tyrol and Lombardy were restored to Austria. The Kingdom of Sardinia and the Swiss Republic were restored, as was also the Bourbon dynasty in Naples. The Bourbons were also restored in Spain, and the House of Braganza in Portugal. The old Germano-Roman Empire was not restored; but in its stead Austria, Prussia and the other German states were united into a league called the *Germanic Confederation*, whose Diet was to assemble regularly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and the Austrian representative was to preside over the Diet. The new States-System thus established was to be maintained by Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia—which were recognized as the *Five Great Powers*—whose duty was to preserve the peace of Europe and to manage European affairs exclusively. The principal plenipotentiaries in the Congress of Vienna were the Emperor Alexander of Russia, Prince Metternich of Austria, Talleyrand of France and Lord Castlereagh of Great Britain.

The sufferings and misfortunes which had been inflicted upon Europe in consequence of the great French Revolution and the resultant mili-

Congress
of
Vienna
and New
States-
System.

Germanic
Confed-
eration.

The Five
Great
Powers.

Holy
Alliance
and Its
Support
of Absolutism.

tary despotism of Napoleon Bonaparte turned men's minds to serious thoughts and to religious feelings, thus giving predominance to piety and Christian faith in the hearts of the royal families and the upper classes of European society. Imbued with this religious sentiment, the three great absolute sovereigns of Europe—Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, King Frederick William III. of Prussia and Emperor Francis I. of Austria—signed, in the city of Paris, on September 25, 1815, the famous compact known as the *Holy Alliance*, by which they swore as follows: "That, in accordance with the teachings of Holy Scripture, which commands all men to love each other as brethren, we will remain united in the bonds of true and indissoluble brotherly love; that we will mutually aid and assist each other; that we will govern our subjects like fathers of families, and that we will maintain religion, peace and justice." In the course of a very few years the Holy Alliance was joined by all the sovereigns of Europe except the Pope and the British monarch. As we shall see presently, this powerful league of crowned heads, with its beautiful theory of brotherly love and fatherly affection for their subjects, was soon made the instrument for the suppression of all constitutional, liberal and democratic tendencies and the strengthening of absolute monarchical power under the mask of piety and religion; thus pursuing a liberty-crushing state policy which sought, by means of religion, to establish monarchical absolutism and the omnipotence of crowned sovereigns by the suppression of the doctrine of popular sovereignty and all liberal, democratic and constitutional forms of government. As the Holy Alliance used Christianity to establish reactionary principles, it drew upon its whole work the reproach of hypocrisy as well as popular hatred.

Popular
Democratic
and
Constitutional
Aspirations.

While European monarchs and princes were seeking to preserve and maintain absolute governments, the people of Europe were striving for constitutional forms. A free constitutional government, like that enjoyed by the people of Great Britain, was what seemed most desirable to the oppressed masses of Europe; as, by the time-honored British Constitution, the masses of the British people, through their representatives in the House of Commons, the popular, or republican branch of the British Parliament, have the right of voting taxes and a share in the government and a voice in legislation, while the authority of the monarch and the rights and liberties of the British people are alike safeguarded by this representative constitution, the product of the wisdom and experience of centuries of English statesmanship and patriotism. The chief exertions of European liberals and constitutionalists were therefore directed to the establishment or enlargement of such constitutional government in Continental Europe, and the public attention was almost wholly turned to political and state affairs. Accordingly,



Wellington,
Lobov.

Saldapala,
Leowallchm.
Hardenberg.

Noailles,
Mottornich.

Pupin,
Nessbrode,
Palma la.

Dalberg,
Rasumofsky,
Stewart,
Clancarty,
Labrador,
Castelbragga.

Wacken,
Gentz,
Humboldt,
Cathcart,
Talleyrand,
Stackelberg.

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

From the Painting by J. B. Isabey

two powerful political parties struggled incessantly for the mastery in Continental Europe; the party desiring to give the masses as many privileges and as much political power as possible being called *Democratic, Liberal, or Radical*; while the party seeking to restrict the political privileges of the people and to uphold absolutism was called *Absolutist, Aristocratic, or Conservative*. As the Absolutist, or Conservative party was the party generally in power in the states of Continental Europe, the Liberal, or Constitutional party generally formed the opposition. Of the Five Great Powers of Europe, Great Britain and France alone had constitutional governments; Austria, Prussia and Russia being thoroughly absolute monarchies, their sovereigns being wholly unhampered by a constitution or by a national legislative body.

SECTION II.—REACTION IN FRANCE AND GERMANY (A. D. 1815–1830).

AFTER the restoration of the Bourbons, in the person of Louis XVIII., France was distracted by the contests of parties. A reaction in favor of the royalists had taken place among the French people. The royalists manifested the most intense hatred against the Bonapartists and the republicans, who were charged with the authorship of all the misery which had been brought upon the country by twenty-three years of revolution and war.

The zealous royalists, not satisfied with the moderation of the king, who tried to steer between the two extremes, demanded punishment of the Bonapartists and republicans; and Louis XVIII., although disposed to be moderate, found himself obliged to banish all those who had caused the execution of his brother, Louis XVI. In place of the free-thinking opinions of the Revolutionary period and the former hostility to the Church, a fanatical religious credulity made its appearance, which, along with the most enthusiastic royalism, led to deeds of blood recalling the most sanguinary days of the Reign of Terror. Thus the royalists, called *White Jacobins*, disgraced themselves by bloody massacres of Protestants, Bonapartists and republicans at Marseilles, Nismes, Toulon, Toulouse, Avignon and Lyons. Among those murdered was Marshal Brune.

To gratify the reactionary party, which desired the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism, the king was forced to violate, in many instances, the constitutional Charter, which he had sworn to observe. He was urged, against his own will, to place restrictions upon the liberties of the people in various ways and to increase the royal power. The influence of the royalists prevailed to some extent, and the liberty of the press and other privileges were restricted in a great measure.

Louis
XVIII.,
A. D.
1814–
1824.

Party
Contests.

Royalist
Excesses.

Royalist
Reaction.

Moderation of Louis XVIII.

In September, 1816, King Louis XVIII. dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, whose reactionary tendencies had disgusted even this Bourbon monarch. He declared his determination to govern his kingdom in accordance with the principles of the Charter; and the elections which were held a month afterward resulted in the choice of candidates of the moderate, or constitutional party, which heartily sustained the government.

France's Accession to the Holy Alliance.

The accession of France to the Holy Alliance at the Congress of Aix la Chapelle, in 1818, when the foreign military occupation of France ceased, through the efforts of the Duke of Wellington, the commander of this allied army, thus reducing the term of occupation from five to three years, engaged the French government to a system of policy designed to secure monarchical power throughout Europe; but a large number of the French deputies resisted the extension of the royal prerogative; and the French Prime Minister, Decazes, supported by the moderate royalists, sought to frame a system which would strengthen the monarchy without injuring the constitution. But he was violently opposed by the ultras, or violent royalists, who obtained a temporary triumph through an unfortunate event, the result of popular exasperation.

Result of the Assassination of the Duke of Berry.

The assassination of the Duke of Berry, the king's nephew and the son of the Count of Artois, on the night of February 13, 1820, by the fanatic Louvel facilitated the efforts of the reactionary party, headed by the Count of Artois and the Duke of Angoulême. These ultra royalists, called the *extreme right*, because of the place they occupied in the Chambers, denounced Decazes for encouraging doctrines subversive of the monarchy, producing such effect upon the court that Decazes resigned. The widowed Duchess of Berry gave birth to a son, September 29, 1820, who received the title of Duke of Bordeaux—an event hailed with joy by the Bourbonists, as it gave them an heir to the French throne.

Ministry of the Duke de Richelieu and the Ultra Royalists.

An ultra-royalist Ministry under the Duke de Richelieu was then formed; and laws were passed authorizing the Prime Minister to arrest suspected persons, imposing censorship on the press and raising the qualifications for the elective franchise; but even these violations of the Charter did not satisfy the *extreme right*, who accordingly united with the *left*, or liberal party, in the Chambers, in strenuous efforts to overthrow the Richelieu Ministry. The Chambers were the scenes of violent and stormy debates unbecoming the dignity of a deliberative assembly. The Duke de Richelieu resigned, December 17, 1821, and was succeeded by a more ultra-royalist Ministry under Villele. The popular dissatisfaction was manifested in numberless plots, riots and incendiary fires, which were made the pretext for fresh restrictions.

Under Villele's Ministry the zeal of the royalists reached its climax. The royalist majority in the Chamber of Deputies showed itself so very unscrupulous, by expelling the liberal deputy Manuel for revolutionary doctrines without permitting him to make any defense, that the left retired from the Chamber in a body; so that the Chamber voted funds without opposition for sending the army under the Duke of Angoulême into Spain to restore the absolute power of King Ferdinand VII. The French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême then invaded Spain, A. D. 1823, at the command of the Holy Alliance, and restored the absolute power of the Bourbon King of Spain.

Villele's
Ultra
Royalist
Ministry.

French
Restora-
tion of
Absolut-
ism in
Spain.

The success of the French army in Spain emboldened the Ministry of Villele to set aside the Charter, and, by means of intimidation, bribery and corruption in the elections of 1824, to obtain a Chamber of Deputies which contained but nineteen liberal members.

Elections
of 1824.

King Louis XVIII. died September 16, 1824, and was succeeded as King of France by his brother, the Count of Artois, who thus became CHARLES X. The new king was a thorough Bourbon, ignorant, narrow-minded, a firm believer in absolute rule and thoroughly under the influence of the Jesuits. He was frank and cordial in his disposition, and his friends were warmly attached to him. By his solemn coronation and anointing at Rheims, May 29, 1825, he seemed to indicate that he intended to govern after the manner of the old "Most Christian" kings. He therefore turned his affections toward the nobility and the clergy and gave himself up entirely to the reactionary party, whose watchword was "Throne and Altar."

Charles
X., A. D.
1824-
1830.

His
Ultra
Reaction-
ary
Policy.

Under the new king, Villele brought forward two very unpopular measures, one granting an indemnification of a thousand francs each to the Emigrants for the forfeiture of their estates during the Revolution, and another reducing the rate of interest on the public debt. These laws were passed with great opposition; but some concession was made to public opinion by acknowledging the independence of Hayti and opening commercial intercourse with the South American republics, while commercial treaties were also concluded with Great Britain and the Empire of Brazil.

Villele's
Unpopu-
lar Acts.

A series of laws in favor of the Roman Catholic Church announced the king's intention to erect a powerful bulwark against all revolutionary doctrines by the religious regeneration of France. This regeneration was to be effected by founding rich bishoprics, by restoring the Roman Catholic clergy to their old position and influence in France—a feat which the bigoted and reactionary monarch was not able to accomplish. The Jesuits, who had been restored by the Pope long before, returned to France rather clandestinely, founded congrega-

At-
tempted
Religious
Regenera-
tion of
France.

tions for pious devotion and sought to get control of the education of youth. While the deluded sovereign supposed that he could rivet the old fetters upon people's minds by inopportune missions and penitential processions or by compulsory laws and limitations, he was, by this very means, strengthening the liberal opposition, as all men of philosophical education, all friends of enlightenment, turned away from a government that favored obscurantism and darkness, and the assiduous youth listened to the liberal discourses and doctrines of the enlightened professors of the University of Paris, such as Guizot, Villemain, Royer-Collard and others, or read the bold and free discussions of the opposition, or liberal press, such as the *Paris Globe*, *Nationale*, *Constitutionnel*, etc., or delighted themselves with Beranger's songs of freedom and the satires of the Hellenist, Paul Louis Courier, while the French citizens read the widely-circulated works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the Encyclopedists, or the histories and memorials of the Revolution and of the renowned rule of Napoleon by Thiers, Mignet and others.

Laws of
Primo-
Geniture.

Villele strengthened his Ministry in 1826 by creating thirty-one new peers. By reviving the old laws of primogeniture and entail he sought to establish the aristocracy of France on a permanent basis, but the law of primogeniture was so odious to the great masses of the French nation that it was rejected by the Chamber of Peers. Public attention in France was occupied mainly by the trial of Ouvrard, who had furnished supplies to the French army when it invaded Spain in 1823. The terms of his contract were exorbitant, and he succeeded in effecting it by wholesale bribery. He had likewise joined in drawing double pay and double rations for the soldiers in the campaign in Spain. When Villele first heard of the transaction he caused Ouvrard to be arrested and brought to trial; but when, in the course of the investigation, it appeared that many persons of great rank and influence were implicated in the transaction, the Prime Minister induced the Chamber of Peers to bring the matter to a hasty conclusion. But the abuses which had been disclosed were already made public; and the effort to screen the guilty, combined with the illegal protection accorded to the Jesuits, exposed Villele to public and deserved censure.

Ouvrard's
Trial
and Its
Result.

Villele's
Addi-
tional
Unpopu-
lar Acts.

The alienation of the French people from Villele's Ministry was completed by the dissolution of the National Guard, the revival of the censorship of the press and the adoption of several harsh measures to disperse popular assemblies. Villele was conscious that he was losing ground; wherefore he dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, though three years of its term were yet unexpired. At the same time he created seventy-six new peers—an act wholly at variance with the spirit of the Charter.

Villele was disappointed by the result of the elections, which returned a liberal majority. The king himself seemed to abandon the principles of the Holy Alliance by congratulating the Chambers on the victory of Navarino and expressing himself favorable to the liberties of Greece. Soon afterward Villele resigned and was succeeded by a more liberal Ministry under M. Portalis. One of the first measures of this Ministry was to remove the system of public education from the control of the Jesuits. This proceeding was popular with the French nation, but it gave great offense to the king. The new Ministry was opposed by the *extreme right*, by the clergy and by many of its professed partisans, and was suspected by the *left*; and M. Portalis finally resigned August 8, 1829, whereupon an ultra-royalist Cabinet under the leadership of Prince Jules de Polignac was appointed.

Villele's
Defeat
and
Resigna-
tion.

Liberal
Ministry
of
Portalis.

Polignac.

After the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, Germany was weaker and less united than she had been during the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. Though the number of independent principalities and states had been decreased in number by more than a hundred, and though the bishoprics, abbacies and imperial towns had been deprived of their independent position, the thirty-eight states which embraced the new Germanic Confederation were invested with sovereign powers so far as their internal, or domestic affairs were concerned. Instead of the old German Imperial Diet, the general affairs of the Germanic Confederation were managed by the German Federal Diet, which convened regularly at the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main, and which, as we have seen, was composed of representatives of all the German states, Austria's representative being president of the Diet. But, as the German Federal Diet was wholly under the direction of the individual German state governments, it possessed no independent power; so that the Germanic Confederation was a feeble member among the European nations, entirely under the influence of the two great German powers, the Empire of Austria and the Kingdom of Prussia, which assumed the first rank on account of their German provinces. Even foreign kingdoms sent representatives to the German Federal Diet, the King of Denmark being represented for the duchy of Holstein and the King of Holland for the duchy of Luxemburg, as before noticed.

Weak-
ness of
Germany
under the
Confed-
eration.

Germany's weak condition was as unsatisfactory abroad as its internal arrangements were at home. Instead of a powerful union, with a united confederated government and a popular representation, as desired by patriotic Germans, the arrangement framed by the Viennese Congress was a union consisting of a number of sovereign German states, in which the governments, not the people, of these German

Unsatis-
factory
German
State
Constitu-
tions.

states, were represented; and the thirteenth article of the Union Act, which gave a general promise of the introduction of state constitutions, without any distinct notice of the time and manner of such introduction, did not satisfy the popular expectations. As Prussia, where the reactionary party under Haller, Schmalz and others soon obtained the ascendancy over the popular party of the War of German Liberation, delayed bringing forward the promised state constitution and at length introduced, instead of the desired German imperial legislature, only provincial estates with consulting voices, without either publicity or general interest, the discontent of the German people grew greater daily. Austria, under the influence of her celebrated statesman and Prime Minister, Prince Metternich, who was the real ruler of the Austrian Empire for a third of a century, from 1815 to 1848, first under the Emperor Francis I. (1815-1835), and then under the latter's son and successor, Ferdinand I. (1835-1848), was governed in a spirit of complete absolutism and kept as far aloof from the German body-politic as possible. Prussia was governed in the same absolute spirit and was the instrument for the execution of very unpopular measures. There being no general system of management or debate, the constitutions that were gradually introduced into Saxe-Weimar, Würtemberg, Bavaria, Hesse and many other smaller German states were very dissimilar from each other, so that Germany appeared torn and divided, and it seemed that the Fatherland would be dissolved into its separate races and states.

German
Popular
Dis-
content
and the
Wartburg
Festival.

The foregoing condition of things filled Germany with great popular discontent and weakened public confidence in the patriotism of the German state governments. The German liberal party aimed at a progressive development of state affairs in a democratic direction and kept alive the sentiment in favor of German unity, and this party grew stronger daily. Above all, the German youth, who were filled with admiration of the Middle Ages by the new romantic poetry produced by the famous brothers, Augustus William and Frederick von Schlegel, the poet Novalis, Ludwig Tieck and others, were dissatisfied with existing political conditions in Germany, longing for the German Empire of the Middle Ages and for the former unity and greatness of Germany, and seeking to invigorate the new ideas of popular government under the old German forms and titles. With no clear aim and with no knowledge or respect for obstacles, the German youths in the high schools had formed the fraternal alliance of the *General Burschenschaft* and strove for an ideal world and state creation upon the old German system. This feeling first exhibited itself during the festival of the Wartburg, October 18, 1817, the fourth anniversary of the battle of Leipsic and the third centennial of the Reformation,

which was celebrated with great enthusiasm throughout Protestant Germany, and on which occasion a number of students, in remembrance of the War of German Liberation, held a meeting at the Wartburg, near Eisenach, at which fiery speeches were made by the youths, and at the conclusion of which, in imitation of Luther's example in burning the Pope's bull of condemnation, certain writings of Kotzebue, Kamptz, Haller, Jarke and others, which were offensive to their views, along with pigtails, breast-laces, corporals' canes and other antiquated and feudal symbols, were wantonly burned. This outburst of youthful eloquence caused the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia and Russia to denounce the German student society at the Congress of Aix la Chapelle, in 1818.

Augustus von Kotzebue—the great German dramatist and Russian Consul-General in Germany—ridiculed the student demonstration and its outburst of youthful eloquence through the medium of the press, whereupon a student, George Sand, of Wunsiedel, who had been one of the moving spirits of the Wartburg demonstration and who was a pious and patriotic youth imbued with vanity and fanaticism, embraced the criminal design of killing Kotzebue, who was suspected of imperiling German freedom and political development by transmitting information to the Russian government. Desiring to rid the German nation of this “Russian spy,” this “traitor to the country,” Sand approached the unsuspecting Kotzebue in Mannheim with a letter and pierced him with a dagger as he was reading this letter, March 23, 1819. Sand failed in his attempt at suicide, recovering from his self-inflicted wounds and ending his life on the scaffold. His deed of assassination filled the land with horror; and the German statesman, suspecting the existence of a widespread conspiracy, curtailed the freedom of the universities and filled the prisons with students and adopted effective repressive measures against student demonstrations.

Assassin-
ation of
Kotzebue.

By the Decrees of Carlbad, in September, 1819, the freedom of the press in Germany was restrained by a censorship, a court of investigation was established at Mayence for the suppression of “demagogic intrigues,” the alliances of the *Burschenschaft* with their gymnasia were interdicted, the universities were placed under the supervision of special government officials, and finally unconditional validity to the resolutions of the German Federal Diet was given for all German state governments. By the concluding act of Vienna the democratic spirit of the South German provinces was greatly restricted. Prussia, which for a long time had been the hope and confidence of all German patriots, now became the leader in reactionary and unpopular measures. Arndt, Jahn and others whose voices and example had such great influence upon the popular cause were now prosecuted as supporters of “dema-

Repres-
sive
Measures.

gogic intrigues" and deprived of their offices and watched very closely by the police. Thenceforth the unity of Germany was regarded as a dream, and any one who expressed a desire for such consummation was suspected of "demagogic intrigues." Each German state was considered an independent sovereignty and was governed without regard to the general interest of the German Fatherland, and, although many excellent arrangements were adopted in the governmental administration of justice and in the affairs of religion and education, comparatively little was done to arouse sentiments of German nationality and patriotism.

SECTION III.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1820 IN SPAIN, PORTUGAL, ITALY.

Free
Masons
in Spain
and
Portugal
and
Carbonari
in Italy.

IN Spain, Portugal and Italy the new liberal political ideas had made no progress among the masses of the people, as the masses in those countries were too much attached to their Church and its priesthood, the new liberal ideas existing simply among the few educated persons; and, as it was dangerous to avow such ideas openly, they were disseminated in secret societies, such as the Free Masons in Spain and Portugal and the *Carbonari* in Italy. The great objects of these secret political associations were the abolition of priestly power, the introduction of free constitutional government, the enlightenment of the people, the inculcation of patriotism and sentiments of liberty and nationality.

Ferdinand
VII. of
Spain,
A. D.
1814—
1833.

The influence of these secret political societies was productive of results first in Spain, whose restored Bourbon king, FERDINAND VII., a false and suspicious man and an expert in dissimulation, suppressed the Cortes Constitution of 1812 and restored absolute monarchical power with all its old-time evils, upon his restoration to his throne, May 10, 1814. The Spanish nobility and clergy recovered their former exemption from taxation; the monasteries were restored; the Jesuits made their reappearance; the Inquisition was again in full swing, with the rack and other horrors.

Tyranny
Restored.

Persecu-
tion of
Spanish
Liberals.

Under the restored Bourbon regime in Spain a frightful persecution followed, in which the Alfrancesados, or adherents of France, and officials and supporters of former King Joseph Bonaparte, were the victims, as were also the chiefs and partisans of the Cortes, and even the leaders of the guerrilla bands who had shed their life-blood for King Ferdinand VII. himself and for their country against its recent French invaders and who now claimed a share in the government and civil freedom as their well-deserved reward for their patriotic devotion

to their country and their legitimate sovereign. Many of these heroic warriors died by the hand of the executioner, and others wandered in foreign lands as outlaws and fugitives; while those who remained behind concealed their opinions and their resentment in silence. A camarilla, composed of the selfish privileged class, greedy parasites, sycophantic courtiers and intriguing women, secured King Ferdinand's confidence and instigated him to the most cruel persecution of the whole Spanish liberal party. The government and the administration of justice were in the most deplorable condition. The national treasury was exhausted, notwithstanding the most oppressive taxation, and trade was stagnant. In addition, the Spanish colonies in North and South America had renounced their allegiance to Spain and were engaged in a war of independence, which ended in the loss of those colonies to Spain and in the formation of a number of Spanish American republics, the account of which will be noticed more fully in another part of this work.

On New Year's Day, 1820, a military conspiracy ended in open rebellion among the Spanish regiments at Cadiz as they were about to be embarked for South America to assist in crushing the rebellion against Spanish authority on that continent. These Spanish rebels at Cadiz proclaimed the Cortes Constitution of 1812. This Spanish insurrection, under Colonel Riego and the recently-liberated Quiruga, soon spread to every part of Spain, and the popular demand everywhere was for the restoration of the Cortes Constitution of 1812—a demand which was completely triumphant, as King Ferdinand VII. was obliged to yield by summoning the Cortes and swearing to the Constitution, March 7, 1820.

The triumph of the Spanish revolutionists encouraged the liberals of Portugal and Italy to similar undertakings. Popular outbreaks in Lisbon and Oporto, in August, 1820, resulted in the overthrow of the Ministry of the English Lord Beresford, who governed Portugal in the name of King JOHN VI., who still lingered in Brazil, having become King of Portugal upon the death of his mother, Queen Maria, in 1816; and the revolution ended in summoning the Portuguese Cortes and in the establishment of a constitution in Portugal similar to the one just adopted in Spain. King John VI. returned to Portugal and swore to the new constitution, January 26, 1821. In 1822 Brazil peacefully became independent of Portugal as an empire under Dom Pedro I., the son of King John VI. of Portugal.

Incited by the Spanish Revolution of 1820, the Carbonari excited a military conspiracy in Naples, which soon broadened into a revolution which compelled the tyrannical restored Bourbon King of Naples, Ferdinand IV., to grant a liberal constitution similar to the Spanish

Spanish
Revolution of
1820.

Portu-
guese
Revolution of
1821.

Revolutions in
Naples
and Pied-
mont.

Cortes Constitution of 1812; and William Pepe and Carascosa, the leaders of the revolution, marched triumphantly into the city of Naples at the head of the revolutionary troops and the Carbonari, July 13, 1820. A military and popular insurrection in Piedmont in March, 1821, compelled King VICTOR EMMANUEL I. of Sardinia to abdicate his throne in favor of his brother CHARLES FELIX, March 13, 1821; and a liberal constitution similar to the Spanish Cortes Constitution was also established in the Kingdom of Sardinia.

Restora-
tion of
Absolu-
tism in
Naples
and
Piedmont
by the
Holy
Alliance.

Disturbed by this revolutionary spirit, which was also infecting the German youth, the three crowned heads who had formed the Holy Alliance held a conference at Troppau, in Austrian Silesia, in October, 1820, and at the instigation of Prince Metternich, the Austrian Prime Minister, they resolved to suppress the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms. King Ferdinand IV. of Naples, who by invitation met the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia and Russia at Laybach, in January, 1821, agreed to the proposal; and accordingly an Austrian army of forty-three thousand men marched into Naples, and, after several insignificant conflicts, compelled the revolutionary forces under Pepe and Carascosa to disperse or surrender; whereupon King Ferdinand IV. abolished the constitution which he had granted and resumed his former despotic power. An Austrian army soon entered Piedmont to suppress the constitution in the Sardinian kingdom. The Piedmontese revolutionists under Santa Rosa were defeated at Novara, April, 1821, and the Austrians occupied the cities of Turin and Alessandria; whereupon the Piedmontese constitution was overthrown and absolute monarchy was reëstablished in the Kingdom of Sardinia in its severest form and with all the horrors of the reaction.

Despot-
ism
in Naples
and
Piedmont.

After the forcible suppression of the liberal constitutions in Naples and Piedmont by the military power of Austria at the instigation of the Holy Alliance, absolutism prevailed in both those Italian kingdoms. In Naples absolute monarchy was upheld by mercenary troops and a system of police; and the Neapolitan people remained passive, from a feeling of terror, their love of liberty appearing to be only a mere outbreak of momentary excitement. King Ferdinand IV. of Naples died in 1825 and was succeeded by his son FRANCIS I., who died in 1830 and was succeeded by his son FERDINAND V.

Liberal
Excesses
in Spain.

The Spanish Cortes Constitution also had a melancholy end. The Spanish liberals abused their power by hasty innovations and by persecutions of the priests and the supporters of the Apostolic party, which favored the Church and the priesthood and absolute royal power and class privileges; many restrictions being placed on the kingly authority and the privileged classes and the ancient and traditionary usages being subject to attacks, thus arousing the priests and the



NICHOLAS II., CZAR OF RUSSIA

Apostolic party to violent resistance and bringing on a bloody civil war, which distracted Spain for several years.

The excesses of the Spanish liberals brought about the intervention of the Holy Alliance in Spain also. It was resolved by these leagued crowned heads, in a Congress at Verona, in October, 1822, to compel the Spanish Cortes to amend the Spanish Constitution so as to give the king greater power; and when the Cortes rejected this demand with defiance the Holy Alliance resorted to force to compel submission to its demand and intrusted the execution of its will to France.

Accordingly, in February, 1823, a French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême crossed the Pyrenees and entered Spain to enforce the decree of the Holy Alliance. Vainly did the Spanish Cortes call upon the Spanish people to drive out the French invaders, as constitutional freedom had no charms for the Spanish masses and as the new liberal system was opposed to their habits and feelings. The hope of the Cortes in a popular uprising and in guerrilla warfare did not materialize, as the Spanish masses and the camarilla saluted the French invaders as deliverers from the hated rule of the Free Masons. Vainly did a few liberal leaders, like Mina in Barcelona and Quiroga in Leon, resist the foreign invaders with courage and resolution, as the Spanish soldiers exhibited no warlike resistance and saved themselves by capitulations. The French entered Madrid in triumph and appointed a regency, the king and the Cortes having fled into the South of Spain. The supporters of the Cortes Constitution made their last stand at Cadiz, but when the French appeared before the city the courage of the Cortes faded away, although that body had grandiloquently declared its determination to bury itself beneath the ruins of the city, and it entered into a treaty with the French besiegers by which it agreed to its own dissolution and to the release of King Ferdinand VII., who thus recovered his former absolute power under the protection of French bayonets, and who reigned despotically thenceforth until his death in 1833.

Thus the Spanish Cortes Constitution and the new political system were completely overthrown and absolute monarchy was again triumphant in Spain, while the unfortunate Spanish liberals suffered the penalties of defeat. Riego and many of his associates in the liberal movement were executed, while many thousands of his followers were incarcerated in dreary dungeons, and thousands of others saved themselves in self-exile from their country, wandering in foreign lands as starving and homeless fugitives and outlaws, thus expiating the crime of trying to better the condition of their fellow-countrymen by taking from them the institutions of Church and State to which three centuries of absolute despotism had accustomed them.

**Inter-
vention
of the
Holy
Alliance.**

**Suppres-
sion
of the
Spanish
Constitu-
tion by a
French
Army.**

**Complete
Triumph
of Abso-
lutism
in Spain.**

Over-
throw
of the
Portu-
guese
Constitu-
tion.

The deplorable end of the Cortes Constitution in Spain encouraged the Queen of Portugal, who was a sister of King Ferdinand VII, of Spain, and her son, Dom Miguel, to get rid of their obnoxious constitution by an act of violence. Through their instigation, and with the support of the Apostolic party of Portugal, consisting of the clergy, the aristocracy and Dom Miguel's supporters, King John VI. abolished the Portuguese constitution in 1823 and sanctioned the persecution of the Portuguese constitutionalists and Free Masons.

Dom
Miguel's
Rebellion
in
Portugal.

In April, 1824, Dom Miguel excited a rebellion in Portugal against his father, King John VI., for the purpose of obtaining the regency, but he was defeated, and as a punishment he was banished from the kingdom. King John VI. died March 10, 1826, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his son, DOM PEDRO, Emperor of Brazil, who soon, however, resigned the crown of Portugal to his infant daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, who thus became Queen MARIA II., while Dom Pedro also appointed his brother, Dom Miguel, who had returned from his exile, regent of the kingdom and granted the Portuguese people a liberal constitution.

Dom
Miguel's
Usurpa-
tion and
Over-
throw.

In 1828 Dom Miguel, with the support of the Apostolic party, suppressed the Portuguese constitution and usurped his niece's crown, causing himself to be proclaimed King of Portugal in June, 1828, as an absolute monarch, and punished the supporters of constitutional government with execution, imprisonment and banishment. But his usurped reign lasted only a few years. Dom Pedro, who had been compelled to abdicate the crown of Brazil in 1831 in favor of his infant son, Dom Pedro II., returned to Portugal in 1832 to defend his daughter's right to the crown of that kingdom. The constitutional party rallied to Dom Pedro's support; and in 1834, after a bloody civil war of two years, during which Dom Pedro was aided by Great Britain and France, the usurper Dom Miguel was forced to renounce his pretensions and to leave the kingdom; whereupon the constitution which the usurper had suppressed was reëstablished, and Maria II. was undisputed sovereign of Portugal. After Dom Pedro's early death the Portuguese constitution was subjected to many attacks and alterations.

Spanish
American
War of
Independ-
ence.

For three hundred years Mexico, or New Spain, and most of South America had groaned under Spain's tyranny; the Spanish Americans being forbidden to produce anything not prescribed by Spain, and not being allowed to engage in any manufacturing industry, nor to trade with any nation except Spain under pain of death. Popular insurrections broke out in Mexico and South America in 1810. San Martin freed Buenos Ayres, Chili and Peru by his victories at Chacabaco and Maypu, in Chili (February 12, 1817, and April 5, 1818);

and Simon Bolivar liberated Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador by his victories at Boyaca and Carabobo, in Colombia (August 7, 1819, and June 24, 1821). The chief revolutionary leaders in Mexico were Hidalgo and Moralos, and afterward Iturbide. Spanish power was forever swept from the American continent by the decisive victories of the Colombians under General Sucre at Junin and Ayacucho, in Peru (August 6, and December 9, 1824). The Spanish Americans received aid from Great Britain and the United States; the two great Anglo-Saxon nations frustrating the project of the Holy Alliance to restore Spain's lost dominions in the New World, the great British statesman George Canning, as Foreign Secretary in Lord Liverpool's Ministry, instigating President James Monroe to issue his celebrated state-paper, the *Monroe Doctrine*, against any such project as that contemplated by the Holy Alliance against the recently-liberated Spanish American colonies. The Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent republics; and one of them—Bolivia—was named in honor of General Simon Bolivar. Mexico first became an independent empire under Iturbide, but he quarreled with the Mexican Congress and was driven off in 1823, and afterward returning was shot; and in 1824 Mexico became an independent republic, General Guadalupe Victoria being the first President. Paraguay was ruled by the Dictator, Dr. Francia, from 1812 to 1840. Since the establishment of their independence Mexico and the South American republics have been constantly distracted by revolutions and civil wars.

The account of these events will be more fully dwelt upon in a subsequent portion of this work, and a mere sketch is given in this connection in order to show the relation of this Spanish American Revolution with the revolutions in Europe during the same period. These Spanish American republics have made but little progress in material prosperity and in free institutions, and are republics merely in name, their Presidents being mostly dictators. The Roman Catholic religion is established by law in most of them, and Church and State is closely connected. The whites, of Spanish descent, form but a comparatively-small proportion of the population; the greater portion of the inhabitants being Indians and mixed races.

The most tranquil of the South American nations has been Brazil, which, after it had ceased to be a Portuguese colony and had become an independent empire by its peaceable separation from Portugal in 1822, entered upon a new career under princes of the same Braganza dynasty which reigned over its mother country and which occupied the Brazilian throne until the peaceful revolution which established the Brazilian Republic in 1889.

Spanish
American
Repub-
lics.

Brazil.

SECTION IV.—GREECE'S WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (A. D. 1821-1829).

The
Hetæria.

For three and a half centuries Greece had groaned under the barbarous yoke of Turkish despotism, but about the close of the eighteenth century a secret society called the *Hetæria* began to further a desire for Grecian independence.

Ypsi-
lanti's
Procla-
mation.

On the 7th of March, 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, then serving as a general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, and at the same time assured his countrymen of the assistance of Russia in their approaching struggle for liberty. But the influence of Prince Metternich, who, at the Congress of Laybach, opposed giving countenance to any revolt against legitimate authority, prevented the Czar Alexander from giving any support to the Greeks, although he was at heart in sympathy with them.

Russia's
Attitude.

Revolt
in the
Morea.

Soon after the proclamation of Ypsilanti, an insurrection against Turkish authority broke out in the village of Suda, in the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus. The movement rapidly spread over the whole peninsula, and the insurgents declared that their purpose was to defend Christianity and civilization against Mohammedanism and barbarism. In the Morea the wild and warlike Mainotes of the Taygetus rose under the leadership of Mauromichali and Kolokotroni, the other inhabitants of the peninsula soon following, and a more systematic warfare was planned by Demetrius Ypsilanti, Alexander's brother. The Greeks in Livadia and the islands of the Archipelago fought successfully, their valor recalling to memory the feats of their ancestors, though very little Hellenic blood flows in the veins of the modern Greeks.

Assassin-
ation
of the
Greek
Patriarch.

The rage of the Turks became indescribable; and the gray-haired Gregorios, Patriarch of Constantinople, the supreme head of the Greek Church, was hung before his church-door with a number of his bishops, on Easter-day, 1821; while the Greeks in the Turkish capital were massacred or banished.

Ypsi-
lanti's
Defeat
and
Flight.

The *Sacred Band* of the Greeks in Wallachia, under the leadership of Alexander Ypsilanti, was annihilated by the Turks in the sanguinary battle of Dragaschan, on the 19th of June, 1821. The Greeks, like their ancestors at Thermopylæ, fought with the courage of desperation. Ypsilanti fled into the Austrian dominions, where he was siezed and kept a prisoner for years in a Hungarian fortress.

Greek
Successes.

In August, 1821, the Greeks captured Navarino, and in October following the strong fortress of Tripolizza, where they put eight thousand Turks to the sword. On the 5th and 6th of September, 1821, the

Greek General Ulysses defeated a large Turkish force near the famous pass of Thermopylæ. The peninsula of Cassandra was afterward taken by the Turks, who put three thousand Greeks to the sword and carried many women and children into slavery.

In the beginning of 1822 a Greek Congress assembled at Epidaurus. On the 13th of January a provisional constitution was proclaimed; and on the 27th of the same month a manifesto was issued, announcing the union of the Greeks under a central government, under the presidency of Alexander Mavrocordato. The Greek leaders often quarreled among themselves; but, notwithstanding this, fortune was, in general, on the side of the struggling patriots until the summer of 1825.

**Greek
Provis-
ional
Govern-
ment.**

In March, 1822, the inhabitants of the beautiful island of Scio, the ancient Chios, rose in revolt and put the Turkish garrison to the sword. In April a force of Asiatic Turks spread over Scio, plundering and massacring the inhabitants and reducing the beautiful island to a desert. Forty thousand Sciots were put to the sword, and many women and children were sold into slavery. Soon afterward one hundred and fifty Greek villages in Macedonia were destroyed and many of the inhabitants were put to the sword, thus arousing horror and indignation throughout Europe.

**Desola-
tion of
Scio.**

The war was carried on by both parties in the most barbarous manner. Thousands of Greeks were put to the sword by the enraged Turks, and when the Greeks had the opportunity they took a bloody revenge on their cruel foes. Many of the Turkish vessels were blown up by the Greek fire-ships. On the 12th of December, 1822, the strong Turkish fortress of Napoli di Romania surrendered to the Greeks after a furious assault.

**Barbarous
Warfare.**

**Greek
Fire-
ships.**

On the 20th of August, 1823, a Turkish army of ten thousand men was met and defeated by five hundred Greeks under the heroic Suliot leader, Marco Bozzaris, who was killed in the moment of victory. The last words of this valiant patriot were: "Could a Suliot leader die a nobler death?"

**Victory
and
Death of
Marco
Bozzaris.**

"They fought like brave men, long and well;
They piled the ground with Moslem slain;
They conquered—but Bozzaris fell,
Bleeding at every vein.
His few surviving comrades saw
His smile when rang their proud hurrah,
And the red field was won;
Then saw in death his eyelids close,
Calmly, as to a night's repose,
Like flowers at set of sun.

* * * *

“Bozzaris! with the storied brave
 Greece nurtured in her glory's time,
 Rest thee; there is no prouder grave,
 Even in her own proud clime.
 We tell thy doom without a sigh;
 For thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's—
 One of the few, the immortal names
 That were not born to die.”

**Philhel-
lenic
Societies
and
Foreign
Volun-
teers.**

Though the crowned heads of the Holy Alliance, refusing to countenance revolt against constituted authority, held aloof from the struggle in Greece with cold indifference, popular sympathy was strongly manifested in Europe and America for the Greek patriots, and *Philhellenic* societies were formed to aid the Greek cause; while volunteers flocked to Greece from every part of Europe, among whom was the illustrious English poet, Lord Byron, who died at Missolonghi, April 19, 1824. In the United States of America such great statesmen as Webster and Clay pleaded the Greek cause.

**Capture
of
Ipsara.**

During the year 1824 the Turks reduced the strongly-fortified rocky island of Ipsara, but after two thousand Turks had entered the last fort the Greeks blew it up and perished with their foes. In 1825

**Ibrahim
Pasha
in the
Morea.**

Ibrahim Pasha, son of the celebrated Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, whom the Sultan had induced to assist in the suppression of the Grecian rebellion, landed in the Morea with twenty-five thousand Egyptian troops and spread desolation throughout the whole peninsula. Ibrahim Pasha captured Navarino, but the Turks were defeated for the third time at Missolonghi.

**Siege and
Fall of
Misso-
longhi.**

In the latter part of 1825 Ibrahim Pasha, with twenty-five thousand men, laid siege to Missolonghi. After many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed by the Greeks, Missolonghi fell into the hands of Ibrahim Pasha on the 22d of April, 1826. The Greek garrison of eighteen hundred men cut their way through the lines of the besiegers and fled to Athens. Many of the inhabitants fled from the city when the victorious foe entered, but some were pursued and captured; and those who remained in the city, about one thousand in number, mostly old men, women and children, blew themselves up in the mines, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. The fall of Athens in 1827 seemed to ruin the cause of the Greeks, but their deliverance was at hand.

**Nicholas
I. of
Russia
and His
War with
Persia.**

The Emperor Alexander I. of Russia died December 1, 1825; and as his brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, had already renounced the Russian crown, his younger brother NICHOLAS ascended the Russian throne, after personally suppressing a bloody insurrection in St. Petersburg in favor of Constantine. The new Czar was favorable to the Greek cause, although his attention was first occupied by a war with



THE BATTLE OF NAVARINO
From the Painting by A. L. Garnevan

Persia, with which Russia had been at peace since the Treaty of Gulistan, in October, 1813; but the victories of the Russians under General Paskiewitsch over the Persians ended this war by the Treaty of Turkomanshee, February 21, 1828, by which Persia lost still more territory in the Caucasus region, and the Russian frontier was advanced to Mount Ararat and the river Aras, the present boundary between Russia and Persia.

The death of Lord Liverpool in England, in 1827, was followed by the elevation of the able and enlightened statesman, George Canning, to the head of the British Ministry—a statesman who had not forgotten his youthful dreams or his enthusiasm for the liberation of Greece.

In France the government was obliged to pay some attention to the clamors of the Philhellenists, especially after the horror excited throughout Europe by the bloody massacre of the Janizaries in Constantinople by order of Sultan Mahmoud II., in June, 1826.

At the proposal of the great English statesman and Prime Minister, Canning, Great Britain, France and Russia concluded a treaty at London, July 6, 1827, to secure the independence of Greece. To enforce this treaty, a combined British, French and Russian fleet, under the command of the English Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, was sent to the Grecian waters. The refusal of Ibrahim Pasha to evacuate the Morea occasioned the battle of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, in which the allied fleet totally annihilated the Turko-Egyptian fleet.

Sultan Mahmoud II. in a rage expelled the ambassadors of the three allied powers from Constantinople, and behaved so insolently toward them that Russia declared war against Turkey, April 26, 1828. A Russian army of one hundred and fifteen thousand men under Count Wittgenstein crossed the Pruth, May 7, 1828, and invaded the Turkish tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Russians were repulsed in an assault upon Brahilov, June 15, 1828, but took that fortress by capitulation, June 20, 1828. By July 2, 1828, the Russians had taken six other Turkish fortresses.

A Russian flotilla attacked the Turkish flotilla at Varna and captured fourteen vessels, August 7, 1828. The Russians under General Geismar routed the Turks at Widin, September 20, 1828. The Russians took Varna by storm, after a siege of two months, October 11, 1828; its garrison having been reduced from twenty-two thousand men to six thousand.

The capture of Varna gave the Russians command of the Turkish coast of the Black Sea; and the Russian Admiral Heyden officially announced the blockade of the Dardanelles, October 15, 1828. The

Canning
in Great
Britain.

Attitude
of
France.

Greece
Aided by
Great
Britain,
France
and
Russia.

Battle of
Navarino.

Russo-
Turkish
War of
1828-29.

Russian
Suc-
cesses.

Capture
of Varna.

Russian
Attacks
on
Shumla
and
Silistria.

Turks retired into the strong mountain fortress of Shumla, in July, 1828, where they had more than forty thousand men under Hussein Pasha. The main Russian army, forty-five thousand strong, under Count Wittgenstein, marched against Shumla while the operations were going on before Varna; but after the fall of Varna the Russian army fell back from Shumla, October 15, 1828. The Russians laid siege to Silistria in September, 1828, but raised the siege November 10, 1828, abandoning their heavy artillery.

Russia's
Demands
Rejected
by the
Sultan.

In the meantime the Russians under General Paskiewitsch had achieved a series of brilliant victories in Asiatic Turkey. Although the Turkish losses in Europe and Asia were two principalities, three pashalics, fourteen fortresses and three castles, the Ottoman Porte rejected the terms of peace offered by the Czar Nicholas through the British ambassador, Lord Heytesbury. These terms were a war-indemnity and security against future violation of treaties.

Ibrahim
Pasha's
Evacua-
tion.

In the meantime Ibrahim Pasha had been compelled by the French fleet and a French army under General Maisson to evacuate the Morea and to restore to his Greek prisoners their freedom, and Count John Capo d'Istria was chosen President of the Grecian states.

Demand
of the
Allies.

In January, 1829, the Sultan received a protocol from the three allied powers, declaring that they took Greece under their own protection and that they would consider another Turkish invasion of Greece as an attack upon themselves.

Russian
Victories
at
Shumla
and
Silistria.

Sultan Mahmoud II. prepared for a new campaign against the Russians. Marshal Diebitsch superseded Count Wittgenstein as Russian commander-in-chief, February 21, 1829. Marshal Diebitsch laid siege to Silistria, May 17, 1829, and repulsed an attack by the Grand Vizier's army that day, the Turks losing two thousand killed. A month later—June 17, 1829—Marshal Diebitsch defeated the Grand Vizier in a great battle near Shumla; the Turks losing six thousand killed, many taken prisoners, forty-three cannon and all their ammunition and baggage. Silistria surrendered to the Russians, June 30, 1829; its garrison of eight thousand men and the armed inhabitants becoming prisoners of war; while two hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, eighty stand of colors, two three-tailed pashas and the entire Turkish flotilla were also taken.

Russian
Suc-
cesses.

Marshal Diebitsch forced the passes of the Balkan mountains, July 22, 1829, and defeated seven thousand Turks under the Seraskier Abdulrahman, taking four hundred prisoners, twelve cannon and seven standards. The next day, July 23, 1829, the Russian army captured Mesembria with twenty standards, fifteen cannon and two thousand prisoners; and on the same day the Russians took Achioli with fourteen cannon, ammunition, etc. Upon reaching the Black Sea coast

the Russian army was able to coöperate with the Russian fleet under Admiral Greig. Bourgas was taken with ten pieces of artillery and an abundance of military stores, June 24, 1829. Aidon was taken with the entire Turkish camp and its military stores, June 25, 1829. The Russians captured Adrianople, the second city of the Ottoman Empire, August 20, 1829.

Capture
of
Adrian-
ople.

By the Peace of Adrianople, September 14, 1829, Turkey recovered Moldavia and Wallachia and all the towns which the Russians had taken in Bulgaria and Roumelia. Moldavia was to have an independent administration and free trade; and Russia was to have free commerce throughout the Ottoman Empire and with all nations at peace with Turkey, and free navigation of the Black Sea. Turkey also agreed to pay a war-indemnity to Russia, besides an indemnification for the losses of Russian subjects, and to acknowledge the independence of Greece; but as the question of boundaries required a long time for settlement, the Greeks continued the war for some time longer; and Miaoulis, the Greek admiral, blew up the Grecian fleet rather than surrender it to the enemy.

Peace of
Adrian-
ople.

During the Revolution the Greek leaders often quarreled among themselves; and in 1831 the Greek President, Count John Capo d'Istria, who, by his selection of bad advisers, had made himself unpopular, was assassinated by the brothers Mauromichali as he was about to enter a church. The three allied powers—Great Britain, France and Russia—having determined to erect Greece into a constitutional monarchy, they formed the Kingdom of the Hellenes out of the Morea, Livadia, part of Thessaly, the Cyclades and Negropont, the crown being bestowed on Otho, a prince of the royal house of Bavaria, who arrived at Nauplia in 1833, and reigned as King of Greece until he was hurled from the throne by the Revolution of 1862, being compelled by a popular demand and uprising to dismiss and banish his German favorites in 1843. Greece has since striven to raise herself to the position of a civilized nation, the forms of which she has assumed without being able to free herself from the conditions of barbarism and a life of brigandage.

Assassin-
ation of
Capo
d'Istria.

SECTION V.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1830 IN FRANCE, BELGIUM, POLAND, GERMANY, ITALY.

As we have seen, the liberal Ministry which had been forced upon King Charles X. by the voice of public opinion, in August, 1829, was dismissed, and an ultra-royalist Ministry with Prince Jules de Polignac at its head was appointed. This new Ministry endeavored to strengthen the royal power, and was extremely unpopular with the

Charles
X. and
the Ultra
Royalist
Ministry
of Prince
Polignac.

French people, who accused Polignac and his colleagues of a design for the subversion of popular liberty and the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism; but Polignac blindly persevered in his arbitrary schemes.

Royal
Speech
and Dis-
solution
of the
Chamber
of
Deputies.

At the opening of the French Chambers, on the 2d of March, 1830, the speech from the throne clearly announced the king's determination to overcome by force any obstacles that might be thrown in the way of his government, and contained a threat to deprive the French people of the rights granted them by the Charter. There was a large majority against the Ministry in the Chamber of Deputies; and that body returned a frank reply to the royal speech, declaring that a concurrence did not exist between the views of the government and the wishes of the people. The king, declaring his intention to support his Ministers, prorogued the Chambers; and on the 17th of May a royal ordinance declared them dissolved and ordered elections for a new Chamber.

War with
Algiers.

In the meantime the king and his Ministers, with the view of overcoming their unpopularity by gratifying the passion of the French people for military glory, declared war against Algiers; the Dey having refused to pay long-standing claims of French citizens and having insulted the honor of France by striking the French Consul. A naval expedition consisting of ninety-seven vessels, carrying more than forty thousand troops, and commanded by General Bourmont, the Minister of War, sailed from Toulon on the 10th of May, 1830, and on the 14th reached the African shores. The city of Algiers was captured on the 5th of July, 1830, with trifling loss on the part of the French. The Dey fled to Italy, and his treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors.

Capture
of
Algiers.

Increased
Liberal
Majority.

The news of the capture of Algiers occasioned much rejoicing in France, but did nothing toward gaining popularity for the Ministry, public feeling being too decided to be thus easily affected. The elections for a new Chamber of Deputies resulted in giving the liberals a much larger majority than they had in the Chamber lately dissolved.

Three
Royal
Ordi-
nances.

The Ministry now resolved to set the popular will at defiance by measures directly subversive of the constitutional Charter; and on the morning of the 26th of July, 1830, three royal ordinances were issued—the first dissolving the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, the second arbitrarily altering the mode of election and the third suspending the freedom of the press. To all who were acquainted with the popular feeling it was apparent that these arbitrary measures, so subversive of popular rights, could be executed only by force; and yet no preparations had been made for this. So blind and infatuated were the king and his Ministers that they did not dream of any re-

sistance on the part of the people. The king went on a hunting excursion, and the Prince de Polignac gave a splendid dinner to his colleagues. No sooner had the *Paris Moniteur*, the official government newspaper organ, published the three royal ordinances on that very day than symptoms of revolution manifested themselves. In the evening mobs collected in Paris, lamps were demolished, the windows of Prince de Polignac's hotel were broken, and cries of "Down with the Ministry!" and "The Charter forever!" were heard.

Disturbances in Paris.

On the morning of the 27th, July, 1830, in defiance of the royal ordinance suspending the liberty of the press, the conductors of the liberal journals in Paris printed and distributed their papers as usual; but their types were soon seized and their presses broken by the police. Marshal Marmont, who was placed in chief command of the government troops, endeavored to assist the police in preserving order; and the Ministry declared Paris in a state of siege. The streets were kept clear by the guards for the greater part of the day, and Marshal Marmont wrote to the king that quiet was restored; but during the night the citizens demolished the lamps, procured arms and barricaded the streets with paving stones torn up for the purpose.

Revolution Begun, July 27, 1830.

On the morning of July 28th the streets of Paris were filled with armed citizens, who raised the glorious tri-colored flag in every direction. They carried with trifling loss the detached guard-houses, the arsenal and the powder magazine. At nine o'clock the tricolor was seen to wave from the spire of the Church of Notre Dame, and at eleven from the central tower of the Hôtel de Ville. Carriages and omnibuses were thrown on the sides of the streets to obstruct the passage of the troops. The troops were exposed to a severe fire from the windows, barricades and street corners. Tiles and stones were hurled upon them from the tops of houses, while oil and boiling water were showered upon them from the windows. The king and his Ministers and Marshal Marmont were greatly surprised when they discovered that what they had at first considered merely a riot had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. During the night the pavements were torn up and the trees in the Boulevards cut down to raise obstructions for the passage of the troops.

Street Fighting on July 28.

The Tricolor.

The contest was renewed with terrible fury on the morning of July 29th, and General Lafayette appeared among the insurgents and assumed the command of the National Guard. At noon several regiments of the line deserted to the people. Thus reinforced, the mob stormed the Louvre and the Tuileries, from the windows of which they opened a tremendous fire upon the Swiss and royal guards. The brave defenders of the throne, unable to make any further resistance to the populace, succeeded only with great difficulty in effecting a

July 29.

Lafayette and the National Guard.

Revolu-
tion
Success-
ful.

retreat; and at three o'clock in the afternoon the Paris Revolution of July ended in the complete triumph of the people. The Ministers now resigned their offices, and the king signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances; but it was too late. The Parisians had already resolved that Charles X. should no longer reign. The Deputies to the new Chambers in Paris organized a provisional government under the banker Lafitte, Casimir Pèrier, Odillon-Barrot and others, and decreed that the National Guard should be reorganized and placed under the command of that consistent friend of rational freedom, the Marquis de Lafayette.

Abdica-
tion and
Flight of
Charles
X.

On the 31st of July, 1830, Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, son of Philippe Egalité, accepted the office of Lieutenant-General of the French kingdom. On the 2d of August Charles X. formally abdicated the throne of France; and his son, the Dauphin, resigned his rights in favor of the king's infant grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux. No attention was paid to these proceedings. The Paris mob prepared to march in thousands to Rambouillet, to which place Charles had retired; but he did not wait for their coming. Recollecting too well the awful period of 1789, when another Paris mob marched to Versailles, he fled to England, and for a time took up his residence in Holyrood palace, near Edinburgh. He afterward went to Germany, and died of a broken heart at Goritz, in Austria, November 6, 1836.

Louis
Philippe,
"King
of the
French."

In the meantime the newly-elected French Chambers assembled in Paris; and, after some debate, the constitutional party triumphed over the republicans and it was determined that the government of France should remain a limited monarchy, and the crown was conferred on the Duke of Orleans, who, on the 9th of August, 1830, took the oath to support the constitutional Charter and ascended the throne of France with the title of LOUIS PHILIPPE I., *King of the French*. Louis Philippe owed his elevation chiefly to the venerable Lafayette, who, believing the French people still unfit for a republic, preferred "a throne surrounded with republican institutions." Presenting the new *Citizen King* to the people, in front of the Chambers, Lafayette exclaimed: "Now we have the best of republics!"

Conse-
quences
of the
Paris
Revolu-
tion of
July,
1830.

The Paris Revolution of July, 1830, occasioned a violent shock throughout Europe and gave the death-blow to the Holy Alliance, which had already received a severe shock by the death of the Czar Alexander I., in 1825. Revolutionary movements occurred in Belgium, Poland, Germany and Italy, which alarmed absolute monarchs and threatened consequences fatal to the general tranquillity of Europe. The revolutionary outbreaks were quelled only after a two years' struggle; and though the influence of the three absolute powers—Austria, Prussia and Russia—was sufficiently strong to restore absolu-

tism in most states, free opinions gained greater prominence and public opinion grew powerful enough to defy all the efforts of state police and bureaucracy. In the West of Europe, through the influence of Great Britain and France, constitutional government and civil freedom generally prevailed. The absolute powers of Europe did not attempt to undo the work of the French Revolution of July, 1830; and the French government of the "Citizen King," Louis Philippe, assumed a pacific attitude toward the other nations of Europe and endeavored to win the support of all parties and factions in France by a conciliatory policy.

The effects of the July Revolution of Paris first displayed themselves in Belgium. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, in utter disregard of differences in language, religion and interests, had united Holland and Belgium into one monarchy, designated the *Kingdom of the Netherlands*, under the government of a prince of the House of Orange, or Nassau. From the time of the incorporation of Belgium with Holland the Belgians suffered the most unmitigated oppression from the Dutch king; and the Hollanders endeavored to force their own language, laws and religion upon the Belgians, who also were obliged to share in the Dutch national debt and in the high taxes. The Protestant courts were entrusted with the supervision of the education of the Catholic youth in Belgium. When the Belgian press denounced the conduct of the Dutch government the writers were fined, imprisoned, or banished from the country. The alliance of the Belgian liberal party, which was struggling for political freedom and co-operated with the French liberal party, with the Catholic Ultramontane party, which demanded freedom of education, was designated by the Dutch king, in his speech from the throne, as "infamous."

Thinking the opportunity favorable and encouraged by the success of the Paris Revolution of July, 1830, the Belgians were seized with the revolutionary spirit; and the people of Brussels rose in insurrection on the 25th of August, 1830, after the representation of the opera, *The Mute of Portici*, the mob destroying the printing-house of a pro-Dutch journal, the palace of the Minister of Justice, the residence of the Director of Police, etc., and, after an obstinate struggle of four days, expelled the Dutch authorities and garrison from the city. To prevent any further outrages by the mob, a civic guard and a committee were organized, to manage affairs until the radical and the Catholic ultramontane parties united themselves in a Belgian National Congress under the guidance of Potter. The movement spread rapidly, and in a short time the whole of Belgium was in revolt against the authority of the King of Holland. The Dutch were repulsed in an attack upon Brussels, and the Belgian insurgents proceeded against

Union of
Holland
and
Belgium.

Dutch
Oppres-
sion
of the
Belgians.

Outbreak
in
Brussels.

Belgian
Declara-
tion of
Independ-
ence.

Antwerp to drive the Dutch from that city. Thereupon the Dutch General Chassé retired into the strong citadel with his troops and cannonaded the town for several hours with three hundred pieces of artillery, thus destroying an immense amount of valuable property. This proceeding caused much exasperation in Belgium; and in November, 1830, the Belgian National Congress declared the independence of Belgium and the exclusion of the House of Orange from the Belgian throne.

London
Confer-
ence.

While the war between the Dutch and the Belgians was in progress, the representatives of the five great powers—Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia—held a conference in London, where, after long diplomatic negotiation, it was determined to separate Belgium from Holland and to arrange the boundaries between the two countries in an equitable manner.

Prince
Leopold
of Saxe-
Coburg,
"King
of the
Belgians."

Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a relative of the British royal family and who was shortly afterward married to a daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French, received the crown of Belgium with the title of LEOPOLD I., *King of the Belgians*. King Leopold I. conciliated the Belgian liberal party by granting his subjects a very liberal and free representative constitution, and placated the Roman Catholic clergy by granting the full and complete separation of Church and State. The King of Holland vainly attempted to subdue the Belgians, who were now aided by Great Britain and France. On the 23d of December, 1832, the Dutch army which had held possession of Antwerp was compelled to surrender to the French army under Marshal Gerard. Thereupon Belgium assumed her place as an independent kingdom among the nations of the earth. Since her separation from Holland, Belgium has prospered wonderfully in every branch of industry and social improvement.

Succeed-
ing
Kings.

WILLIAM I., who had been King of Holland since 1814, abdicated in 1840 and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM II., who died in 1849 and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM III. Leopold I. of Belgium reigned until his death, December 9, 1865, when he was succeeded by his son LEOPOLD II.

Kingdom
of Poland.

The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, erected Poland into a kingdom, with a Diet and a constitution of its own; but the sovereign power of the kingdom was vested in the Czar of Russia, under the title of *King of Poland*. The Poles were soon disappointed in the hopes which they had entertained that the Emperor Alexander would protect them in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges granted them by the new constitution. Before long the principal offices in Poland were filled with Russians; the article of the new constitution granting freedom of the press was annulled, and publicity of debate in the Polish Diet was

abolished. On the death of the Emperor Alexander I., in 1825, and the accession of his brother Nicholas to the throne of Russia the nominal administration of affairs in Poland was intrusted to a Pole; but all the real power was invested in the Archduke Constantine, the brother of the Emperor-king. Constantine was an unscrupulous tyrant. His despotic and cruel course revived the old spirit of Polish freedom and nationality, and the successful revolutions in France and Belgium in 1830 urged the Poles to a rebellion against the Russian power, the Poles believing that the French would come to their assistance in throwing off the yoke of Russian despotism. Secret organizations were formed, whose object was to bring about the restoration of Polish independence and the reunion, under one government, of those portions of Poland which had been absorbed by Austria, Prussia and Russia.

**Archduke
Constantine and
Russian
Tyranny.**

On the evening of the 20th of November, 1830, the students of the Cadet school at Warsaw attempted to seize Constantine; while another party summoned the people to arms. Constantine escaped from Poland after a severe conflict in which several hundred of his guards were killed. The insurgents forced the arsenal at Warsaw, and before the close of the day forty thousand men were in arms.

**Revolt at
Warsaw.**

The insurgent Poles established a provisional government, with Adam Czartoryski, General Chlopiki and others at its head; and great enthusiasm prevailed in the Polish capital. The provisional government at Warsaw appointed Chlopiki dictator; and the Polish Diet, which was hastily assembled, invested Prince Radzivil with absolute power; but the Polish aristocracy, alarmed at the violence of the republican and democratic clubs at Warsaw, opposed every attempt to excite a popular war and refused to liberate the Polish peasants, from selfish motives, thus rejecting the only means by which Poland could be saved; and, instead of using the newly-aroused military spirit and fresh enthusiasm of the Polish people, the provisional government, which belonged to the Polish aristocracy, decided upon negotiation, placing their hopes upon the promises of French diplomats. The Diet pronounced the deposition of the princely House of Romanoff in Poland.

**Polish
Provis-
ional
Govern-
ment.**

On the 5th of February, 1831, after two months of unsuccessful attempts at negotiation, the Czar Nicholas rejecting all terms but unconditional submission on the part of the Poles, a Russian army of two hundred thousand men, under the command of Field-Marshal Diebitsch, appeared in Poland. An indecisive action occurred on the 5th, February, 1831; and on the 25th a desperate engagement occurred between forty thousand Poles under Prince Radzivil and one hundred thousand Russians, and when the shades of night closed the combat the dead bodies of ten thousand Russians covered the sanguinary field.

**Russian
Invasion
of Poland.**

**Polish
Suc-
cesses.**

On the night of the 31st of March, 1831, the Polish army under General Skrzynecki fought and routed twenty thousand Russians. The Poles rapidly followed up their advantages, and before the close of April the Russian forces were driven out of Poland. Another Polish force under Dwernicki sought to arouse Volhynia to revolt and surprised the world by his bold and skillful retreat upon Austrian territory.

**Battle of
Ostro-
lenka.**

After concentrating his forces at Minsk, Skrzynecki crossed the Bug and advanced to Ostrolenka, where his army, led by General Bem, encountered an army of sixty thousand Russians under Field-Marshal Diebitsch on the 26th of May, 1831. The carnage was frightful. No quarter was given by either party. The Poles were defeated with the loss of five thousand men. The victorious Russians also lost heavily, and three of their generals were among the slain.

**Polish
Dissen-
sions.**

Owing to the dissensions among the Polish leaders, to party spirit, to treachery and the siren voices of French go-betweens, the insurrection rapidly declined in strength after the battle of Ostrolenka. In June, 1831, both Field-Marshal Diebitsch and the Archduke Constantine met with sudden deaths. The populace of Warsaw ascribed the failure of the revolution to treachery on the part of the aristocracy, thirty of whom were sacrificed to the popular fury. The Polish dictator, Czartoryski, the successor of Chlopiki, fled in terror to General Dembinski's camp; whereupon the Polish Diet invested Krukowiecki with the supreme power.

**Fall of
Warsaw.**

At length a Russian army of one hundred thousand men, under the command of General Paskiewitsch, advanced on Warsaw. At Wola, the ancient place of the election of the Polish kings, the attacks of the Russians were repulsed, and the heroic deeds of the Fourth Regiment were celebrated in songs. On the 7th of September, 1831, after two days of furious assaults, during which twenty thousand Russians and ten thousand Poles laid down their lives, the cowardly dictator, Krukowiecki, surrendered Warsaw and Praga to Paskiewitsch. The main body of the Polish army retreated from Warsaw and soon afterward dispersed, while the Polish Diet and provisional government, with the few troops that remained, fled into the Prussian territory, where the Polish warriors were disarmed and detained until the complete subjection of Poland, when they were allowed to return to their native land under an assurance of amnesty; but thousands of them rejected the Czar's grace, preferring a life of exile in foreign lands rather than gaze quietly upon the gradual extinction of their country. The sympathy of the German people, who received and entertained the unfortunate Polish exiles in their melancholy sojourn, was an alleviation of their misery.

The fall of Warsaw was the death-blow to the insurrection, and unfortunate Poland again groaned under the iron heel of Russian despotism. Many of the Polish insurgents retired into voluntary exile in foreign lands; and eighty thousand of those who remained and fell into the hands of the Russians, including generals, soldiers and nobles, were consigned to the dungeons and mines of Siberia in one year.

Poland's
Subjugation.

Poland was deprived of her Constitution, her Diet and her State Council by the *Organic Statute*, and was incorporated with the Russian Empire with a separate government and administration of justice; and Polish nationality and independence seemed extinguished, while the Russo-Greek Church was established in the conquered country. Thereafter, for several decades, General Paskiewitsch ruled in humbled Warsaw as the Czar's viceroy, or lieutenant.

Poland's
Subjection.

The Polish exiles afterwards vainly sought to effect their country's restoration by conspiracies and insurrections in Cracow, Galicia and Posen; but the results of these foolhardy efforts were additional persecutions and eventually the incorporation of the free state, or republic, of Cracow with the Austrian Empire in 1846.

Subse-
quent
Polish
Efforts.

The Paris Revolution of July also occasioned some revolutionary movements in Germany. The German princes, fearing that the well-known desire of the French for the Rhine frontier might cause a new war between France and Germany, viewed the existing gulf between German princes and their subjects with alarm and hastened to prevent a general revolutionary movement by reasonable concessions and by recognizing accomplished reforms. Insurrections in the Kingdoms of Hanover and Saxony, in 1830, resulted in the establishment of liberal constitutions in those states and in the abolition of oppressive abuses and restrictions. In Brunswick the constitution was improved after the destruction of the palace by the mob, the expulsion of the despotic Duke Charles and the assumption of the government of the Duchy by his brother. In Hesse-Cassel, in 1831, the Elector William II. was compelled by an insurrection to give his state a free constitution; but the popular animosity toward his wife, the Countess Reichenbach (Lessonitz), a woman of inferior birth, soon afterward offended the Elector so highly that he elevated his son, the Electoral Prince, to the co-regentship and removed from Hesse with his wife and treasures.

Outbreaks
in
Germany.

The freedom of the press was introduced into Baden, and the liberals obtained the ascendancy in the Chambers of Southern Germany and demanded alterations and reforms in the constitution and government; but their increasing audacity in speech and in writing, as particularly displayed at the Hambacher festival in Rhenish Bavaria, May 27, 1832, brought about a reaction and restriction. The pacific attitude of France under Louis Philippe and the suppression of the Polish

Liberal-
ism and
Reaction.

insurrection by Russia against the German state governments of all kind, that the liberal movement might be separated from abroad.

Fructus
Of the
and
Reaction

An effort of a few young men, students, journalists and literary men to disperse the German Federal Diet at Frankfurt in the March-April 2, 1848, aided the cause of the reactionary party, thus giving great blow to the cause of liberalism in Germany and bringing on a severe persecution of the leaders of the liberal party. The guilty and the suspected were subjected to numerous arrests and personal examinations; and the prisons and the fortresses were filled with political offenders, while multitudes of fugitives were wandering in France and Switzerland. The censorship of the press was renewed with severity, the book-trade was watched and the privileges of the Estates were circumscribed. Thus again the efforts of the reform and progress party were stifled by the reaction and followed, and of some of its champions. The German state governments won a complete triumph, but they outraged the popular sense of justice and insulted public opinion by the use they made of their victory.

Defeat
of the
Cause
by
Austria

The success of the July Revolution of Paris roused the liberals in Italy to action, but their efforts resulted in defeat. Insurrections which broke out in Bologna, Parma and Modena were suppressed by Austrian troops; and the regents who had been expelled from the latter two states were restored to their governments. In the Papal States the bandits and convicts who were employed, along with the papal troops in keeping down the revolutionists conducted themselves in so shameful a manner that the Austrian troops marched into that section to protect the country against its own soldiers. To prevent the Austrians from establishing their own supremacy in the Papal territory, the French by a *Coup de Main*, February 25, 1849, seized upon Ancona, which they held for several years.

French
Coup de
Main

King
Charles
Albert of
Sardinia

King Charles Felix of Sardinia died in 1831 and was succeeded by his cousin CHARLES ALBERT, who found his kingdom without an army and wholly subservient to Austria, whose power in Italy had been vastly increased by the failure of the revolt of 1830. Charles Albert was disposed to pursue a liberal policy toward his subjects, and was even willing to grant them the constitution which he had given them a regent; but he did not dare to do so, as that would have involved him in a war with Austria, for which his kingdom was unprepared.

Joseph
Mazzini
and
Young
Italy

At this time a new party in secret league, called Young Italy, was organized by Joseph Mazzini, for the purpose of freeing Italy from foreign rule and uniting the whole country under one constitutional government. Mazzini was a man of great genius and a brilliant orator. He strove to induce Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead the popular movement and to drive the Austrians from Italy, but the Papal

Treaty of Pergara, and thus brought about the general pacification of the Spanish kingdom; Don Carlos and his family, with several officers and priests, seeking refuge in France.

Espar-
tero,
Narvaez
and
Maria
Christina.

General Espartero, who had been created Duke of Vittoria, quarreled with the queen-mother soon after the close of the civil war; and after removing her from the regency, in May, 1841, he obtained control of the government; but he was overthrown in July, 1843, by General Narvaez, an adherent of the queen-mother, and was obliged to seek refuge in England, whereupon the queen-mother recovered her lost authority. Thereafter Maria Christina, and after her her daughter, Queen Isabella, carried on the Spanish government in complete accordance with the wishes of France. In 1853 a rebellion broke out in Spain in consequence of the despotic measures of the government; and in 1854 an insurrection in Madrid compelled the queen-mother to flee, whereupon a provisional government under Espartero was formed; but Queen Isabella II. afterward secured control of the government. General O'Donnell afterward directed the Spanish government and was practically dictator for some years.

Revolu-
tions in
Portugal.

In Portugal the reign of Maria II. was disturbed by a succession of revolutions. That of 1846-'47 would have deprived her of her crown but for the intervention of Great Britain, France and Spain.

SECTION VI.—GREAT BRITAIN'S REFORMS AND HER EMPIRE (A. D. 1815-1853).

Great
Britain
after
Napole-
on's
Fall.

GREAT BRITAIN emerged from the long contest with France with increased power and national glory. Her empire was greatly extended in all parts of the world. Her supremacy on the sea was undisputed. Her wealth and commerce were increased. Her people enjoyed more civil and political liberty than any other in Europe. But, with all this national prosperity, the lower classes of the English people were sunk in extreme wretchedness and poverty.

Social
Distress.

The long wars with France and the immense subsidies with which Great Britain had furnished her Continental allies raised her national debt to eight hundred million pounds sterling, and her people were borne down with the most oppressive taxes. During the Napoleonic wars the English manufacturers were enabled to carry on their business very successfully, because then the people of Continental Europe had been compelled to relinquish all peaceful pursuits. When peace returned the people of the Continent were enabled to return to their former occupations and to compete successfully with the English manufacturers. The result was the decline of the prosperity of English

manufacturers and the want of employment for the English working-men, who were in consequence reduced to great distress.

From the time of the beginning of the Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool, in 1812, the development of English life, which had been roughly arrested in 1792 by the reaction against the French Revolution, resumed its natural course. The anti-revolutionary terror which Edmund Burke had aroused had died out, and the social distress which followed in England after the renewal of the war with Bonaparte in 1803 led to the revival of questions of internal reform, which had been set aside ever since the outbreak of the French Revolution as Jacobinical. The natural relation of trade and commerce to the general wealth of the British nation at large was disturbed by the peculiar circumstances of the time. The war enriched the landowner, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the farmer; but it impoverished the poor; so that the rich became richer and the poor poorer. During this struggle with Napoleon began that war of classes—that severance between rich and poor, between employers and employed—which still constitutes the great difficulty of British politics.

Questions of Reform.

Great Britain's increase of wealth was indeed enormous. As her navy ruled the seas the war had given her possession of the colonies of Spain, of Holland and of France; and, though her trade was for some time checked by the Berlin Decrees, Napoleon's efforts were soon rendered fruitless by the vast smuggling system which had sprung up along the coast of North Germany. Notwithstanding the serious blow to English commerce in consequence of the war with the United States from 1812 to 1815, English exports almost doubled during the last fifteen years of the war against Napoleon. The great inventions of Watt and Arkwright gave a fresh impetus to manufactures, and the consumption of raw cotton in the Lancashire mills rose during the same period from fifty million pounds to a hundred million. Agriculture had been forced into a feverish and unhealthy prosperity by the vast accumulation of capital and by a succession of bad seasons. Wheat reached famine prices, and the value of land rose in proportion to the price of wheat. Inclosures went on with immense rapidity, and every landowner's income was doubled; while the farmers were able to introduce improvements into the process of agriculture which altered the entire face of the country.

English Wealth and Commerce.

Although the increase of English wealth was immense, that wealth was but partially distributed. During the struggle with Napoleon the population of England increased from ten millions to thirteen millions; and the rapid increase prevented a rise in the rate of wages, which would have advanced naturally in a corresponding degree with the growth of national wealth. Even the manufactures, which eventually benefited

Unequal Distribution of Wealth.

the laboring classes, appeared at first rather to depress them. One of the first results of the introduction of labor-saving machinery was the ruin of many small trades which were carried on at home, and the consequent reduction of many families to pauperism. The terrible pressure of this transition from handicraft to machinery was exemplified in the winter of 1811 in the riots of the Luddites, who proceeded to break the new machines. These riots extended over the Northern and Midland counties of England and were suppressed only by military force.

**Famine
and Pau-
perism.**

While labor was thus thrown out of its older grooves and the rate of wages kept down at an artificially-low rate by the rapid increase of population, the increase in the price of wheat, which brought wealth to the landowner and the farmer, brought only famine and death to the poor; as the wars with France and the United States cut off England from the vast corn-fields of Continental Europe and America. Scarcity of wheat caused a frightful increase of pauperism among the laboring classes. The poor rate increased fifty per cent.; and the increase of poverty produced its inevitable result—the increase of crime.

**Question
of Parlia-
mentary
Reform.**

But the sense of national glory and national distress had little effect upon the course of British home politics. The Perceval Ministry had blindly opposed every project of change or reform, but the terror-struck reaction against the French Revolution which this opposition aimed to perpetuate was even then passing away. The policy of constitutional and administrative progress which the second William Pitt had abandoned reluctantly was revived by the publication of the *Edinburgh Review* in 1802 by a circle of young lawyers of Edinburgh—Brougham, Jeffrey, Horner and Mackintosh. A new vigor was given to political speculation by Jeremy Bentham's advocacy of the doctrine of Utility and his definition of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" as the aim of political action. The question of Parliamentary Reform was revived in 1809 by Sir Francis Burdett, but only fifteen members supported his motion. He was afterward arrested and committed to the Tower for publishing a pamphlet which he styled "a part of our fellow-subjects collected together by means which it is not necessary to describe," and he remained in imprisonment until the prorogation of Parliament.

**Question
of
Catholic
Emanci-
pation.**

The perseverance with which Canning pressed Catholic Emancipation year by year produced a far greater effect. Both efforts at reform were equally vain while Perceval lived; but, upon Lord Liverpool's accession to power, the development of a more liberal sentiment in the British nation was felt in the policy of "moderate concession" adopted by the new Ministry. Catholic Emancipation became an open

question in the Cabinet itself, and was adopted by the House of Commons in 1812, but was rejected by the House of Lords.

The scarcity caused by a succession of bad harvests was intensified by the selfish legislation of the landowners in Parliament. Conscious that the prosperity of English agriculture rested on the high price of corn produced by the war, these landowners in Parliament passed an act in 1815 prohibiting the introduction of foreign grain until wheat had reached famine prices.

**Corn
Laws.**

While the rapid development of English industry glutted the home and foreign markets with unsalable goods and thus brought English mills and factories to a stand still, English society was also disturbed by the great changes of employment consequent on a sudden return to peace after twenty-three years of war and by the disbanding of the immense British land and naval forces.

**Stagna-
tion of
Trade
and
Industry.**

The movement against machinery, which had been suppressed in 1812, revived in the formidable riots of the Luddites; while the distress of the rural poor brought about a great increase of crime. The steady opposition of Lord Liverpool's Ministry, in which Lord Castle-reagh's influence was now predominant, to any project of political progress produced a serious popular feeling which brought into prominence a class of men whose demand for a "radical reform" in English institutions gained for them the name of *Radicals*; and more violent agitators indulged in treasonable disaffection and silly plots against the government. The dispersal of a mass meeting of eighty thousand persons at Manchester to petition for Parliamentary Reform, in August, 1819, by military force increased the unpopularity of the Ministry.

**Riots and
Radical
Reform-
ers.**

For several centuries the Barbary powers of Northern Africa had committed piracies on people of Christian countries. The commanders of vessels were kept as prisoners for ransom, and the crews were reduced to slavery. It had long been the custom of Christian nations to pay tribute to the pirates, as a bribe for the safety of their commerce; but the insolence of the corsairs induced the United States government, in 1815, to send a squadron under Commodore Decatur to humble them. Decatur compelled the Dey of Algiers to accept very humiliating conditions. The British government followed the example of the United States. In 1816 a British squadron under Lord Exmouth was sent against Algiers. Lord Exmouth appeared before the city of Algiers in May, 1816, and demanded the release of all Christians whom the Dey held in slavery. As Lord Exmouth received no answer to his demand, he opened a heavy cannonade upon the city, which was returned by the Algerine batteries; and, after several hours' fighting, the Dey's fleet and a great part of the city were destroyed. The fol-

**Lord
Ex-
mouth's
Expedi-
tion
against
Algiers.**

**Battle of
Algiers.**

lowing morning the Dey informed Lord Exmouth that he would set his Christian slaves and captives at liberty, and the firing ceased. Twelve hundred Christians were then released and allowed to return to their homes.

Death of
George
III.

While Great Britain was agitated and convulsed, the poor, old, blind and insane King George III. died at Windsor Castle, January 29, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth of his reign—the longest reign in the annals of England. The Prince of Wales, who had been Prince Regent during the nine years of his father's insanity, then ascended the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover as GEORGE IV.

George
IV., A. D.
1820—
1830.

During the whole of the reign of George IV., A. D. 1820–1830, Great Britain was agitated by the question of Parliamentary Reform. The new king, while Prince Regent, had been called the “First Gentleman in Europe,” because of his polished manners. He was fifty-eight years of age when he became King of Great Britain and of Hanover, on the death of his father George III., January 29, 1820. He was well educated, but had given himself up to a life of pleasure and to the society of gay and vicious companions. His folly and extravagance had as early as 1794 plunged him into a debt of seven hundred thousand pounds sterling.

His Bad
Char-
acter.

Cato
Street
Con-
spiracy.

In about a month after his accession the violent temper of popular feeling in England was shown by the Cato Street Conspiracy in London, contrived by some desperate characters with Arthur Thistlewood at their head for the assassination of the whole Ministry, and which was punished by the hanging of Thistlewood and four of his accomplices.

Caroline
of Bruns-
wick, the
Wife of
George
IV.

While Prince of Wales, George IV. had been induced by his father to marry his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. This marriage occurred in 1795. The prince soon separated from his wife and accused her of unfaithfulness to her marriage-vows. After becoming king his first act was to renew this charge in the most public manner and to cause the Ministry to introduce a bill into Parliament to grant him a divorce from his wife and to degrade her on charges of misconduct while abroad on the Continent of Europe. Queen Caroline was as popular with the English people as her royal husband was odious to them, and their intense resentment at the attack upon her character and her title compelled the House of Lords to abandon the bill of divorce. The queen had been ably defended by Henry Brougham, afterward Lord Brougham.

Her
Wrongs
and Her
Trial.

Her Sad
End.

The king, less sensitive to public sentiment than the Lords, determined to oppose her coronation as his consort, and was supported in this step by his Privy Council. The Queen was equally resolved to main-

tain her rights; and on the morning of the coronation day, July 19, 1821, she appeared at the doors of Westminster Abbey and demanded admission, but was refused. This humiliation hastened her death. She fell seriously ill, and died of a broken heart, August 7, 1821. She left directions that her body should be taken to Germany and interred with those of her ancestors at Brunswick, and that the following inscription should be put upon her coffin: "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England."

The king's animosity was not appeased by his wife's death, and her body was subjected to insult. The procession which attended the body to Harwich on its way to the Continent was ordered not to pass through London; but the people were determined that it should pass through the city, and carried their point by tearing up the pavements and placing trees across the roads, thus bringing on a series of conflicts in which two persons were killed.

In the meantime the British had been extending their power in the East. They had taken the coast of the island of Ceylon from the Dutch in 1796, and afterward took Trincomalee from them. The British conquest of the native Kingdom of Kandy in 1815 gave the British possession of the whole island of Ceylon, which has always been a crown colony. In 1819 a British colony was established at Singapore, in the peninsula of Malacca, as a market for the rich productions of the East Indies. The island of Java, which the British took from the Dutch in 1811, was restored to the latter in 1815; but the British retained the Cape of Good Hope, which they had finally conquered from the Dutch in 1806, and also retained the island of Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, which they had taken from the French.

After the death of Lord Cornwallis, in 1805, Sir Hilario Barlow became Governor-General of British India, and was succeeded by Lord Minto in 1807. In 1813 the Marquis of Hastings became Governor-General, and during his administration of ten years the freebooting Pindarries and the Ghoorkas of Nepaul were subdued, thus securing British India against disturbing elements.

During the administration of Lord Amherst as Governor-General of British India, which began in 1823 and lasted five years, the English East India Company became involved in a war with the Burmese in 1824, which ended in 1826 in giving the British additional territories. In 1828 Lord William Cavendish Bentinck became Governor-General of British India, and in 1836 began the administration of Lord Auckland. In Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, the British colonies were severely harassed in 1824 by the Ashantees, who defeated and murdered the British governor, Sir Charles McCarthy; but the Ashantees were forced to accept peace in 1827.

**Insult
to Her
Body.**

**British
Power
in the
East
Indies.**

**British
Govern-
ors of
India.**

**Wars
with the
Burmese
and the
Ashan-
tees.**

**Canning's
Foreign
Policy.**

Lord Castlereagh, who had been created Marquis of Londonderry and who had been Secretary of Foreign Affairs in Lord Liverpool's Ministry, committed suicide in 1822 and was succeeded in office by the talented George Canning, under whose able leadership the earlier progressive policy of the second William Pitt returned. In foreign affairs Canning's first act was to break with the Holy Alliance. He asserted the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other nations; and in accordance with this principle he sent troops in 1826 to defend Portugal against Spanish intervention, and also recognized the independence of Spain's revolted colonies in Mexico, Central and South America, opposing the efforts of the Holy Alliance under Russia's leadership to reëstablish Spain's lost dominion in the New World, and inducing President James Monroe, of the United States, to issue his celebrated *Monroe Doctrine* against any such efforts as that of Russia and the Holy Alliance.

**His
Influence
in Home
Affairs.**

In home affairs Canning's influence was seen in the new strength acquired by Catholic Emancipation and in the passage of a bill by the House of Commons in 1825 for the relief of Roman Catholics. With the entry of his friend, Mr. Huskisson, into office, in 1823, commenced a commercial policy founded on a conviction of the benefits of free trade, which afterward resulted in the repeal of the Corn Laws. The new drift of public policy divided the Ministry, and this division showed itself openly at Lord Liverpool's death in 1827.

**Canning
as Prime
Minister.**

**Interven-
tion in
Greece.**

**Ministry
of Lord
Goderich.**

Canning became Lord Liverpool's successor as Prime Minister; but the Duke of Wellington refused to serve under him, as did also the Chancellor, Lord E'don, and the Home Secretary, Robert Peel. Canning's last official act was his intervention in Turkish affairs in behalf of the struggling Greeks by the conclusion of a treaty of alliance with France and Russia, at London, July 6, 1827. Canning's Ministry was broken up by his death four months after its formation. A new Ministry under Lord Goderich was formed on Canning's principles, but was at once weakened by its position on foreign affairs; and the blow inflicted upon Turkey by the allied British, French and Russian naval victory at Navarino, October 20, 1827, was not popular with the English people and was fatal to Lord Goderich's Ministry, which was forced to resign in 1828.

**Ministry
of the
Duke of
Wellington.**

A purely Tory Ministry under the great Duke of Wellington then came into power, with Robert Peel for its chief support in the House of Commons, and was generally viewed as a promise of utter resistance to all further progress or reform; but several great measures of reform made it memorable. In 1828 Parliament repealed the Test and Corporation Acts, passed during the reign of Charles II. and which required the receiving of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper according

to the rites of the Church of England as a necessary qualification for office. This triumph, which was achieved after a brief Parliamentary struggle, greatly raised the hopes of the Roman Catholics for the repeal of the laws which excluded them from Parliament. A motion made in their favor by Sir Francis Burdett was carried in the House of Commons by a majority of six, but a similar motion was defeated in the House of Lords.

Repeal
of the
Test and
Corpora-
tion Acts.

The agitation of the question of Catholic Emancipation continued during the remainder of the year 1828. *Brunswick Clubs* were formed by the advocates of Protestant ascendancy to resist all further concession, while the Catholic leaders and their friends strenuously exerted themselves to render the cause of Catholic Emancipation popular. The agitation in Ireland, kept up by the *Catholic Association* formed by Daniel O'Connell, threatened that country with civil war; as the most intemperate harangues were made at the meetings of the Brunswick Clubs and the Catholic Association.

Catholic
Emanci-
pation
Agitation.

The sudden display of strength by the Irish Catholics, who elected Daniel O'Connell to represent County Clare in Parliament, brought the agitation to a point where the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington had to choose between concession and civil war; as O'Connell was sustained by the whole Catholic population of Ireland, and as he demanded the removal of all Catholic disabilities, threatening civil war as the alternative. The danger was very great, and both parties were surprised to hear Catholic Emancipation recommended in the speech from the throne at the opening of the Parliamentary session of 1829. The Duke of Wellington introduced a bill which he said was the only means to avert civil war, and which admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament and to all civil and military offices under the crown, except those of regent, Lord Chancellor in England and Ireland, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and some others. This *Catholic Emancipation Act* passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, April 13, 1829.

The
Clare
Election
and
Daniel
O'Con-
nell.

Catholic
Emanci-
pation
Act.

King George IV. died at Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830. As his only child, the Princess Charlotte, was dead, he was succeeded on the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence, who thus became WILLIAM IV. The new king had passed his entire life in the navy and was wholly without political experience. He ascended the British throne at a time of great trouble. The popular discontent in England was very great and manifested itself in the burning of farmricks and in the breaking of machinery. There was a demand from all parts of the kingdom for Parliamentary Reform. The French Revolution of 1830 gave great encouragement to the friends of Reform in England. King William IV. was per-

Death of
George
IV.

William
IV., A. D.
1830-
1837.

Question
of
Reform.

sonally in favor of the Reform movement; but the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington refused all concession, and was consequently compelled to resign; whereupon a Whig Ministry—the first in twenty years—came into office under Earl Grey, pledged to the long-standing demand for Parliamentary Reform.

Rotten
Bor-
oughs.

The necessity for Reform was very great. New towns, some of them, like Manchester and Birmingham, among the wealthiest and most prosperous in the kingdom and which had sprung up in the course of a century, were wholly unrepresented in Parliament; while the old and rotten boroughs, some of which had but a few inhabitants, elected members of the House of Commons. Such boroughs, as we have already observed, were usually owned by some large landowner, who controlled the elections to suit himself and openly sold his influence. Most of the small towns were controlled by a clique, which could be bought and sold. As we have already seen, the Pitts had made unsuccessful efforts to reform these evils, the aristocratic opposition being too powerful for them to overcome. The cheap publications of William Cobbett in 1816, which advocated a total reform of this system of abuses, revived the cry for Parliamentary Reform, the demand for which had increased steadily until it had now become too powerful to be resisted.

First
Reform
Bill.

On March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell, of Earl Grey's Cabinet, introduced a Reform Bill in the House of Commons which deprived fifty-six "pocket boroughs" of representation and assigned the one hundred and forty-three members which they returned to counties or large towns which hitherto had been unrepresented in Parliament, established a ten-pound household qualification for voters in boroughs and extended the county franchise to leaseholders, copyholders and tenant occupants of premises of certain values. The defeat of this bill in the House of Commons caused a dissolution of Parliament by the Ministry and the election of a House of Commons overwhelmingly in favor of the Reform Bill. This new House of Commons passed the Reform Bill, but the House of Lords rejected it; whereupon great excitement followed throughout England, while great riots and incendiary fires occurred at London, Bristol, Derby and Nottingham in the fall of 1831. The English people formed *unions* to refuse payment of taxes until their just demands were conceded. The Reform Bill again passed the House of Commons; whereupon the Lords who had opposed it, warned by the excited condition of the kingdom, withdrew and allowed the measure to pass; and the *First Reform Bill* finally received the royal assent June 7, 1832, thus becoming a law. By this important though bloodless revolution—this triumph of the cause of popular freedom—the right of suffrage was extended to half a million British subjects, and the Eng-

lish middle class was invested with the supreme political power in the British Empire.

The Reform Parliament—the object of so many hopes and fears— assembled January 29, 1833, and passed an act abolishing slavery in the British colonies, allowing the masters a compensation of twenty million pounds sterling for the eight hundred thousand slaves thus emancipated in the British West Indies, August, 1833; thus effecting a result for which the great philanthropists, William Wilberforce and Thomas Clarkson, had labored for a lifetime, Wilberforce dying a few months afterward, near the close of 1833. The Reform Parliament also passed an act in 1833 abolishing the commercial monopoly of the English East India Company and throwing open the trade of British India to all British merchants. The Reform Parliament also passed a New Poor Law in 1834, to check the growing evils of pauperism.

But the violence of the Reform Parliament—especially that of the great Irish orator and agitator, Daniel O'Connell, who demanded a repeal of the Parliamentary Union of Ireland with Great Britain—did much to justify the fears of its enemies and to create a reaction throughout the kingdom against it. Even King William IV., who had hitherto been a Whig, like his brother and predecessor, George IV., went over to the Tories. On the resignation of Earl Grey, in 1834, the Whig Ministry was reorganized under Lord Melbourne. This Ministry was soon dismissed by the king and was succeeded by a Tory Ministry under Sir Robert Peel, November, 1834; but another general election returned a Whig majority in the House of Commons and thus restored Lord Melbourne's Ministry to power, April, 1835.

In 1835 Parliament passed the Municipal Corporations Act, restoring to inhabitants of towns the rights of self-government, of which they had been deprived since the fourteenth century. In 1836 Parliament passed the General Registration Act, the Tithe Commutation Act to remedy the constant quarrels over tithes, and the Civil Marriage Act to remove one of the principal grievances of Dissenters. A system of national education commenced in 1834 by a small annual grant for the establishment of schools was developed in 1839 by the creation of a Committee of the Privy Council for educational purposes and by the steady increase of educational grants.

The opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1825 by its projector, George Stephenson, was the beginning of the great railway system of Great Britain, which was soon adopted in every part of the kingdom and which gave a mighty impulse to trade. Thenceforth the number and extent of the railways of Great Britain increased year by year, so that in the course of several decades the United Kingdom was covered by a network of railways.

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RIVER FOREST, ILLINOIS

**Abolition
of
Slavery
in the
British
Colonies.**

**Daniel
O'Con-
nell.**

**Lord
Mel-
bourne
and Sir
Robert
Peel.**

**Important
Parlia-
mentary
Acts.**

**Railways
in Great
Britain.**

8265

Death of
William
IV.

Queen
Victoria,
A. D.
1837-
1901.

Great
Britain
and
Hanover.

King William IV., the "Sailor King," died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837, after a short reign of seven years; and, as his two children, his daughters by his wife, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, had both died in infancy, he was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent, and who thus became Queen VICTORIA. As females were excluded from the throne of Hanover by the Salic Law, Victoria's uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III., ascended the throne of that German kingdom; and the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover, which had been worn by the same individual from 1714 to 1837, have ever since remained separated. The reign of William IV. was the only one in English history that was not disturbed by a foreign war or by an insurrection in the English dominions and during which there was no execution for treason.

Queen
Victoria's
First
Address
to Par-
liament.

The opening paragraph of Queen Victoria's address to Parliament at her accession was as follows:

"The severe and afflicting loss which the nation has sustained by the death of His Majesty, my beloved uncle, has devolved upon me the duty of administering the government of this Empire. This awful responsibility is imposed upon me so suddenly and at so early a period of my life that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find in the purity of my intentions and in my zeal for the public welfare that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to long experience. I place my firm reliance upon the wisdom of Parliament and upon the loyalty and affection of my people."

Incident
at Her
Access-
sion.

It was said that when Victoria was proclaimed Queen, amid the blare of the herald's trumpets and the acclamations of the populace around St. James' Palace, the girl Queen's fortitude for the moment forsook her. In allusion to this circumstance Elizabeth Barrett Browning wrote her pretty lines about the child Queen who "wept to wear a crown":

"She saw no purple shrine,
For tears had dimmed her eyes;
She only knew her childhood's flowers
Were happier pageantries.
And while the heralds played their part,
For million shouts to drown—
'God save the Queen' from hill to mart,
She heard, through all, her beating heart;
And turned and wept;
She wept to wear a crown.

"God save thee, weeping Queen,
 'Thou shalt be well beloved!
 The tyrant's scepter cannot move
 As those pure tears have moved.
 The nature in thine eyes we see
 Which tyrants cannot own,
 The love that guardeth liberties;
 Great blessing on the nation lies
 Whose sovereign wept,
 Yes, wept to wear a crown."

Her
 Marriage
 with
 Prince
 Albert
 of Saxe-
 Coburg-
 Gotha.

O'Con-
 nell's
 Agitation.

The
 Chartists.

Rebellion
 in
 Canada.

Lord
 Palmer-
 ston's
 Foreign
 Policy.

Queen Victoria, born in 1819, was only eighteen years of age when she ascended the British throne, in 1837, but was popular with all classes of her subjects because of her admirable qualities. On February 10, 1840, she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, one of the small Saxon principalities of Germany. Prince Albert was a man of many virtues and of ability and good common sense, qualities which endeared him to the English people and enabled him to retain their affection and confidence until his death, in 1861.

The Whig Ministry of Lord Melbourne continued to lose popular favor after Queen Victoria's accession, and its difficulties increased each year. O'Connell maintained an incessant agitation in Ireland for the Repeal of the Union, and that country could be held down only by Coercion Acts. In spite of the impulse given to trade by the introduction of railway communication, England was still suffering from distress. The discontent of the poorer classes gave rise to riotous outbreaks of the Chartists in 1839. The Chartists, who broke out into open riot at Newport, in Monmouthshire, embodied their demands in a *People's Charter*, as follows: Universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual Parliaments, equal electoral districts, the abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament, and compensation for members. In Canada a quarrel between the Governor and House of Assembly of Lower Canada ended in a revolt headed by Louis Joseph Papineau in Lower Canada and William Lyon Mackenzie in Upper Canada, in 1837-'38, the object of the insurgents being the achievement of Canadian independence; but after a few slight skirmishes between the government troops and the insurgents the rebellion was quelled. In 1841 the two Canadas were united into one province by act of Parliament.

The vigorous but meddlesome foreign policy of Lord Palmerston, a disciple of Canning, in supporting Donna Maria da Gloria as sovereign of Portugal against Dom Miguel and Isabella as Queen of Spain against Don Carlos, by a Quadruple Alliance with France, Spain and Portugal, created general public dissatisfaction in England, which was heightened by the Quadruple Alliance with Russia, Prussia and Austria

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British
Naval
Activity
on the
Syrian
Coast.

in support of Sultan Mahmoud II. of Turkey against his rebellious vassal, Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, who began a second revolt against his suzerain in 1839 and again invaded Syria and advanced in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople. The bombardment of Beyreut and Acre by the British navy in 1840 forced Mehemet Ali to leave Syria in the Sultan's possession, in 1841.

British
Indian
Invasion
of
Afghan-
istan.

The English people were also dissatisfied with the Ministry's foreign policy regarding Afghanistan. Under the erroneous impression that Russia contemplated some act of hostility toward British India through the instrumentality of Persia, an Anglo-Indian army under Sir John Keane was marched into Afghanistan in 1839. The British occupied Candahar, stormed and took Ghiznee, occupied Cabul, deposed Dost Mohammed, the reigning sovereign, and put Shah Soojah in his place.

Great
Britain's
Opium
War
with
China.

The discontent with the Ministry was further aggravated by a war with China which broke out in 1839, in consequence of the destruction of large quantities of opium smuggled into China by British merchants, and the refusal of the Chinese authorities to compensate the British merchants for the opium thus destroyed. A British squadron under Admiral Elliott captured the island of Chusan, July 5, 1840, and under Captain Elliott it took some of the Bogue forts by storm January 7, 1841. The remaining Bogue forts were taken by storm February 26, 1841. The capture of Canton by the British under Captain Elliott and Sir Hugh Gough, in May, 1841, was followed by a suspension of hostilities, when the Chinese ransomed the city by the payment of six million dollars.

Sir
Robert
Peel's
Tory
Ministry.

The wars in Syria, China and Afghanistan made Lord Melbourne's Whig Ministry unpopular, and a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the British people resulted in returning the Tories to power, Sir Robert Peel becoming the head of the new Tory Ministry. In the new Parliament the Tories, who now took the name of *Conservatives*, had a majority of almost a hundred members.

British
Retreat
from
Afghan-
istan.

A great disaster befell the British arms in Afghanistan. On November 2, 1841, a fierce rebellion broke out at Cabul, headed by Akbar Khan, son of the deposed Dost Mohammed. The British ambassadors, Burns and MacNaghton, were murdered, as were many of the British military officers; while Shah Soojah was dethroned and Dost Mohammed raised to the Afghan throne. Finding themselves in the midst of a hostile people, the British made a disastrous retreat. The British troops and camp followers—numbering twenty-six thousand persons—were nearly all killed or made captives.

British
Victories
in
Afghan-
istan.

In 1842 Lord Auckland was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Lord Ellenborough, under whom the British arms retrieved their honor. An Anglo-Indian army under General Pollock

was sent into Afghanistan; and this force, with the aid of the British force under General Nott from Candahar, captured Cabul and rescued the British officers and ladies who had been held as prisoners at Bameean. After destroying the fortifications of Cabul, the British evacuated Afghanistan.

Sir Henry Pottinger, who superseded Captain Elliott, renewed hostilities in China, and captured Amoy, Shanghai and Ningpo in the fall of 1841, defeated the Chinese in the battle of Tsekee in March, 1842, and captured Chapo in May, 1842, and Chin-kiang-foo, July 2, 1842. The British fleet then proceeded against Nankin, where a treaty of peace was signed August 29, 1842. By the Treaty of Nankin, China opened five of her ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Choo-foo—to the commerce of Christendom, paid a war-indemnity of twenty-one million dollars and ceded the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain. This “Opium War” is chiefly important because it opened China to commercial intercourse with the rest of the world. The Treaty of Nankin between Great Britain and China was followed by commercial treaties between France and China, and between the United States and China. Thus a new era was opened in the history of the oldest nation of the world, which now for the first time broke down the barriers of its exclusiveness.

Sir Robert Peel, the new Prime Minister, at once set to work vigorously to remedy the evils from which Great Britain was suffering. Order was restored to the finances by the repeal of a number of oppressive and unnecessary taxes and by the imposition of an income tax. Ireland was still on the brink of rebellion in consequence of O’Connell’s agitation for the repeal of the Union. In 1843 Sir Robert Peel’s Ministry caused O’Connell to be arrested, tried, convicted and imprisoned on a charge of sedition. He was released upon an appeal to the House of Lords; but his conviction destroyed his influence with his countrymen, and his prestige thenceforth rapidly declined.

The treacherous conduct of the Ameers of Scinde toward the British troops in their retreat from Afghanistan, and their subsequent effort to break off their engagements with the British Indian government, brought an Anglo-Indian army under Sir Charles Napier into their territory in 1843. A defeat of the Ameers near Hyderabad was followed by the annexation of Scinde to the British Indian Empire. The Mahrattas, who displayed a treachery similar to that of the Ameers of Scinde, were defeated in the battles of Maharajpoor and Punniar, near Gwalior; and their territory was also annexed to the British Indian Empire.

In 1844 Lord Ellenborough was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Sir Henry Hardinge, who had lost an arm in the battle

**Treaty of
Nankin
with
China.**

**O’Con-
nell’s
Agitation
and
Arrest.**

**British-
Indian
Conquest
of Scinde
and
Gwalior.**

First
War
with the
Sikhs in
India.

of Waterloo. In 1845 the Sikhs of the Punjab crossed the Sutledge and invaded the British Indian territories, but were defeated by the British under Lord Gough at Moodkee, December 14, 1845. The Sikhs were also defeated in the bloody battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobraon, early in 1846; and by a treaty on February 10, 1846, the Sikhs paid indemnities to the British Indian government.

Corn
Law
Agitation.

The Tory, or Conservative Ministry of Sir Robert Peel was called upon to face the most difficult and dangerous questions of home politics since the Reform agitation. The prohibitory duties imposed upon foreign grain by Parliament in 1815 in the selfish interest of the English landowners still continued and were sustained by a considerable party, which declared that English agriculture ought to be protected and that the English people ought to be forced to depend upon their own country for breadstuffs by maintaining those high duties upon the importation of foreign grain. But there was another and larger party who maintained that the Corn Laws simply imposed a tax upon the consumer for the benefit of the producer, and this party advocated absolute free trade with all the world.

Re-peal
of the
Corn
Laws.

Richard Cobden and other English statesmen organized the *Anti-Corn-Law League* in 1839 for the dissemination of free trade views by means of speeches and publications. This association gradually educated English public sentiment in favor of free trade. Sir Robert Peel had entered office pledged to continue the protective system, but he now became convinced of its inexpediency. In 1846 the emergency caused by the failure of the potato crop in Ireland and the harvest in England forced Sir Robert Peel to introduce a bill into Parliament for the repeal of the Corn Laws. The bill passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, thus opening Great Britain to the importation of foreign grain and other articles of food free of duty.

Lord
John
Russell's
Whig
Ministry.

Sir Robert Peel was driven from office by the resentment of his own party because of the repeal of the Corn Laws, and was succeeded by a Whig Ministry under Lord John Russell, which remained in office until 1852. The new Ministry devoted itself to the carrying-out of the free-trade policy in every department of British commerce; and since then the maxim of the Anti-Corn-Law League, to "buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest," has been accepted as the law of British commercial policy. The credit for the triumph of free trade in Great Britain is mainly due to Richard Cobden, one of the ablest political economists that England has ever produced.

Irish
Famine
of 1847.

Another failure of the potato crop in Ireland in 1847 caused a terrible famine in that unhappy country. Although the nobility, gentry and wealthy middle class of England, and benevolent individuals in the

United States, contributed liberally to the relief of the starving poor of Ireland, thousands perished from famine and its attendant diseases.

The Revolutions of 1848 which convulsed the Continent of Europe encouraged the Chartists to make a demonstration in favor of Reform in London, April 10, 1848, for the purpose of presenting a monster petition to Parliament; but the government took the alarm, and twenty thousand workingmen who marched in procession from Kensington Common were prevented from recrossing the bridges by a quarter of a million Londoners who had enrolled themselves as special constables to prevent the dreadful "Red Republican" demonstration, and the affair passed off quietly. Since that time Parliament has abolished the property qualification for members of the House of Commons, made the suffrage in Great Britain almost universal and established the vote by ballot—three of the chief reforms demanded by the Chartists. A feeble effort at rebellion in Ireland in 1848 was quelled by a few policemen; and its leaders—William Smith O'Brien, Thomas Francis Meagher and John Mitchel, editor of *The United Irishman*—were banished.

Great
Chartist
Demon-
stration
in 1848.

Irish
Rebellion
of 1848.

In 1848 Sir Henry Hardinge was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by the Earl of Dalhousie. In the same year a second war with the Sikhs of the Punjab broke out in consequence of the annexation of the Punjab to British India, the young Sikh king being pensioned from his hereditary revenues. The Sikhs were decisively defeated by the British under Lord Gough in the battles of Chenah and Chillianwallah, in January, 1849, and Goojerat, February 21, 1849; whereupon the Sikhs submitted. The famous diamond known as the *Koh-e-noor*, or "Mountain of Light," which for centuries had been supposed to exert a mysterious power in preserving the dominion of its possessor, was taken from the Sikhs and added to Queen Victoria's crown-jewels.

Second
War
with the
Sikhs in
India.

Sir Henry Lawrence undertook the difficult task of reconciling the Sikhs to British rule; and his kindness and justice restored order and prosperity in five years to the Punjab, which had suffered for ages from war and bloodshed. Even the acquiescence of the warlike chiefs was gained, and their sons flocked eagerly to the English colleges to prepare themselves for honorable positions in the British civil or military service. The great mass of Hindoos and Mohammedans of the Punjab who had been under the dominion of the Sikhs readily submitted to the British rule, which gave them greater security of life and property than they had ever before enjoyed. The work of pacification was accomplished so effectually that the Sikhs were thenceforth loyal subjects of Queen Victoria, and but for their steadfast loyalty to British authority during the great Sepoy mutiny of 1857 the British dominion in India would have been overthrown.

Concilia-
tion of
the Sikhs
and Paci-
fication
of the
Punjab.

Great
Britain's
Dominion
in Aus-
tralia.

Besides her empire in India, Great Britain has been building up another great dominion in the East. As we have seen, she took formal possession of the great island of Australia in 1788 by establishing a penal colony at Botany Bay, in the south-eastern part of the island. The shores of this large island, or continent, were explored by the Dutch in the early part of the seventeenth century; but its interior was unknown to Europeans until Captain Cook's visit to its south-eastern coast had suggested the possibility of finding room and sustenance upon its vast untilled domain for the surplus, and particularly the criminal, population of Great Britain.

First
British
Penal
Colony
in Aus-
tralia.

The British fleet of eleven ships which brought a thousand persons, chiefly convicts, in January, 1788, arrived at Sydney Cove, in what has been called the finest harbor in the world. Having lost a store-ship during the voyage, this colony suffered great hardships at first and succeeded in barely establishing itself. As the convict settlers had forfeited all civil rights by their crimes, their labor belonged to the British government; but they proved to be useful pioneers, as they cleared the wilderness, made roads, built bridges and constructed many other public works. They were joined by others from time to time, and the work was carried on vigorously and successfully, thus greatly lightening the tasks of the free settlers.

Reform
of the
Penal
Colonists.

Some of the earlier governors of the English colony in Australia lacked wisdom and benevolence; but under the wise and humane administration of Governor Macquarie, from 1810 to 1821, the convicts embraced the opportunity held out to them to reform; and many who had been driven into crime in the over-crowded cities of England by the cruel pressure of poverty amended their lives and became useful citizens, some of them being chosen to offices of trust in the colony.

Free
Coloniza-
tion of
Aus-
tralia

The thirty years following Governor Macquarie's administration were followed by a large emigration of free settlers from England to Australia, and many new towns were founded. The practice of transporting convicts to Australia and Van Diemen's Land was discontinued, but thousands of the honest poor of Great Britain were aided by the British government to emigrate, and so many persons of character and wealth were induced to colonize in that vast and remote island by the increased facilities for travel and hope of gain that the population increased more than tenfold. Wool became the great staple of the colony and was exported in large quantities. Australian wool has been found equal to the finest fleeces of Spain or Germany, and the flocks of sheep in the vast island then already numbered many millions. The original colony of *New South Wales* was divided; the northern part being called *Queensland* and the southern part being

Aus-
tralian
Wool.

Aus-
tralian
Colonies.

named *Victoria*, the middle part keeping the old name. The colonies of *South Australia* and *West Australia* were afterward organized.

The discovery of gold in the south-eastern provinces of Australia in May, 1851, still further increased the population of the island. This discovery at first threatened the ruin of the colony; as flocks, herds and farms were abandoned for the search of the precious metal. Ships in port were deserted by their crews, who were also smitten with the gold fever. All regular industries ceased for the time, and food reached famine prices; but the consequent peril and distress at last brought the colonists to their senses, and they resumed their ordinary pursuits. Society was reorganized, and security returned. The colony took a new start, and has ever since grown with a wonderful rapidity. The multitude of new immigrants who constantly came from England added to the commercial prosperity of the country.

Melbourne, the capital of Victoria and the largest city of Australia, founded in 1837, is a handsome and flourishing city of about three hundred thousand inhabitants and is the seat of a university. Sydney, the old capital of New South Wales, though older than Melbourne, is smaller, but is also a flourishing city and the seat of a university, and has a metropolitan bishopric. The population of Australia is rapidly increasing; and railroads, telegraphs and other institutions of the West are constantly adding to the wealth and prosperity of that remote land, which seems destined eventually to become the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon nation. Australia and Tasmania—the latter formerly called Van Diemen's Land—are now connected with London by a submarine telegraph cable.

Each of the Australian provinces has a governor, a Ministry and a Parliament of its own; and the free institutions of the Mother Country are firmly planted in that distant and flourishing dominion of Great Britain in the Eastern world, as such institutions are in every other part of the globe in which the Anglo Saxon race plants itself.

Tasmania is also a thriving British colony. The three islands of New Zealand—which are antipodal to the British Isles and which comprise an area larger than those European islands—have become the seats of eight flourishing English colonies. Wellington is the chief town and the capital of the English colonies in those remote islands, which are unsurpassed by any country in the world for richness of soil, for healthfulness of climate and for grandeur and variety of scenery. These islands are rich in coal, copper, iron and gold.

The New Zealand Islands were discovered by the Dutch in 1642, and the first European settlements were made there by deserters from whale-ships visiting the South Pacific. More permanent settlers were attracted by the fine timber of its forests; and since 1814 English

Gold
Discov-
ery in
Aus-
tralia.

Cities of
Mel-
bourne
and
Sydney.

Aus-
tralia's
Develop-
ment.

Her
Free
Institu-
tions.

Tasmania
and New
Zealand.

English
Coloniza-
tion of
New
Zealand.

**The
Maoris.**

missionaries introduced Christianity and the elements of civilization among the Maoris, or native New Zealanders, after which cannibalism and all the worst features of paganism very speedily disappeared. At the present time nearly all the Maoris are nominally Christians. Most of them are able to read and write, and some are even highly educated, while newspapers are printed in the Maori language.

**British
Wars
with the
Maoris.**

In 1840 the Maori chiefs of the two larger of the New Zealand Islands acknowledged the suzerainty of Queen Victoria; but a four years' war, from 1843 to 1847, was caused by disputes concerning the titles to lands; and hostilities have been renewed at various times within the last quarter of a century. The English have found valiant foes in the brave Maori race, because of their native intelligence, their skill in the use of firearms and their knowledge of inaccessible mountain fastnesses; but they are fast diminishing in number, so that they will doubtless be extinct in the near future, when the population of New Zealand will be wholly English, and those islands will also be the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon community. In recent years New Zealand has become the most progressive country in the world, having made the mines, much of the land and the public utilities public property.

**British
Occupation
of
Borneo.**

Private enterprise led to another settlement in the Eastern seas. The coast of Borneo was explored in 1838 by James Brooke in his own yacht. This enterprising Englishman formed the project of civilizing the savage tribes of that large East India island, and also of clearing its rivers and bays of the pirates who had so long preyed upon the commerce of the East Indian seas. He assisted the Rajah of Sarawak in suppressing a rebellion of his subjects, so gaining the confidence of the Sultan of Borneo that he was intrusted with the government of the province. The natives of Borneo were surprised and conciliated by an administration wiser and more beneficent than any which they had hitherto experienced. With the assistance of a British frigate and her boats, Brooke waged a war of extermination against the pirates, thus rendering such service to East Indian commerce that the British government appointed him its regent in Borneo. The adjacent small island of Labuan was annexed to his dominion in 1847, becoming an important British naval station in those remote Eastern seas, particularly since the discovery of great deposits of coal.

**Feejee
Islands.**

The Feejee Islands came into Great Britain's possession in 1874, when the natives placed themselves under Queen Victoria's protection and sent her their great war-club, which for centuries had been used as a scepter by their chiefs.

**Cape
Colony.**

Southern Africa—which the British wrested from the Dutch during the Napoleonic wars—has also become a flourishing British possession; and Cape Town—the capital of the British colony of the Cape of

Good Hope—has become the way-station of vessels sailing between Europe and the Far East.

In the first few years of the last half of the nineteenth century England lost her greatest statesman of the time and her greatest warrior—Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington. Sir Robert Peel, to whom Great Britain was indebted for many improvements in her commercial and economic policy, was thrown from his horse in St. James' Park, and was so fatally injured that he died in a few hours, Ju'y 2, 1850. Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, died suddenly at Walmer Castle, December 14, 1852, on the anniversary of General Washington's death. England sincerely mourned the death of the "Iron Duke," who had fought so many battles and had never been defeated. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral with the most impressive obsequies; and all classes vied in paying honors to the victor of Vimiera, Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, Quatre-Bras and Waterloo.

In 1851 the first International Exhibition, or World's Fair, was held in the *Crystal Palace*, an immense building of iron and glass erected for the occasion, in London. People and exhibits from all parts of the globe were seen in this "Great Exhibition," and the rude implements of the savage and the greatest works of the fine and useful arts were alike displayed in profusion. The electric telegraph between England and France was now completed. This new and important invention was now in general use in Great Britain and in Continental Europe, as well as in the United States of America.

After repeated defeats, Lord John Russell's Whig Ministry was succeeded by a Tory, or Conservative Cabinet under the Earl of Derby; but the financial measures of the new Administration gave great dissatisfaction; and, after a short tenure of less than a year, a hostile vote in the House of Commons led to the resignation of Lord Derby's Ministry, at the beginning of 1853; whereupon a Coalition Ministry, composed of Whigs, Radicals and free-trade followers of Sir Robert Peel, with the Earl of Aberdeen as Premier, came into power. As many of the new Ministers were men of recognized ability, great expectations were formed concerning them. In this Coalition Ministry the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone held the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer and was therefore the leader of the administration in the House of Commons.

In the meantime the British had been engaged in wars in Asia and Africa. A second war between the English East India Company and the Burmese, in 1852, added new territories to the British dominion in India. In South Africa the British had been engaged in hostilities with the wild Kaffirs since 1847, but in 1853 the Kaffirs were subdued and brought to terms.

Deaths
of Peel
and Wel-
lington.

First
World's
Fair in
London.

Tory
Ministry
of the
Earl of
Derby.

Coalition
Ministry
of Lord
Aberdeen.

British
Wars
with the
Burmese
and the
Kaffirs.

SECTION VII.—TURKO-EGYPTIAN WARS AND THE EASTERN QUESTION (A. D. 1831–1839).

**Mehemet
Ali,
Pasha of
Egypt.**

MEHEMET ALI, who, as we have seen, became Pasha of Egypt in 1805, and who had fully established his power by his treacherous massacre of the Maneluke chiefs in 1811, did much for the advancement and prosperity of Egypt. In 1818 his armies commanded by his sons subdued the Wahabees, the new Mohammedan sect of Arabia, and reduced that desert land under his sway. In 1819 and 1820 he conquered Nubia, Senaar, Kordofan and Dongola. He organized a powerful army and an efficient navy on the European model, and officered each with European adventurers, mainly Frenchmen. He caused harbors and docks to be constructed, introduced the manufacture of arms, clothing and other articles into Egypt and carefully fostered these industries. He gave Egypt once more a firm and despotic government, and that country enjoyed a degree of prosperity and internal tranquillity which it had not experienced for many centuries. In 1825, as we have seen, Mehemet Ali sent his son Ibrahim Pasha with an army and fleet to aid his master, the Sultan of Turkey, in suppressing the Greek Revolution; but his fleet was almost destroyed by the allied British, French and Russian fleet at Navarino, October 20, 1827.

**His
Ambi-
tious
Design.**

Mehemet Ali's design was to convert Egypt into an independent hereditary kingdom under his own sway. Immediately after the close of the Greek War for Independence he restored his fleet on a more formidable scale and increased his army. The Ottoman Empire had been seriously weakened by the losses which it had sustained since the beginning of the nineteenth century, and the time appeared auspicious for the execution of his project.

**His
First
Rebellion
against
the
Sultan of
Turkey.**

As a reward for his services to his suzerain, Sultan Mahmoud II., Mehemet Ali had been given the pashalic of the island of Crete; but his ambition was not thus satisfied. He therefore demanded Syria, but was refused that province by the Sultan. Mehemet Ali accordingly resolved to conquer Syria, and a quarrel with the Pasha of Acre afforded him a pretext for invading that province. He sent an army of forty thousand men under his son, Ibrahim Pasha, an experienced and able general, into Syria. The Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha, assisted by the Egyptian fleet, besieged Acre, which surrendered May 27, 1832; after which the Egyptian forces quickly overran Syria and Palestine.

**Egyptian
Victories
in Syria
and Asia
Minor.**

Ibrahim Pasha advanced in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople, successively defeating the Turkish armies sent against him at Ems, in Upper Syria, July 6, 1832; at Beylan, in Cilicia, near the

ancient battlefield of Issus, July 29, 1832; and at Koneih, in the province of Anatolia, in Asia Minor, October 29, 1832. This last victory made Ibrahim Pasha master of almost the whole of Asia Minor; and he was preparing to advance on the Turkish capital, which was only saved from capture by the timely intervention of the Czar Nicholas of Russia in the Sultan's behalf.

Great Britain, France and Russia compelled Mehemet Ali to accept a peace which left him in possession of the pashalics of Egypt and Crete and annexed to them the pashalics of Jerusalem, Tripoli, Aleppo, Damascus and Adana, but which left him a vassal of the Sultan of Turkey. This treaty, which was signed July 8, 1833, was a great victory for the Pasha of Egypt and a great humiliation for Sultan Mahmoud II., being virtually a surrender of all the countries which the Turks had acquired by the conquests of Sultan Selim I. in 1517.

Mehemet Ali steadily pursued his design of converting his dominions into an independent hereditary monarchy, thus arousing the anger of Sultan Mahmoud II. Mehemet Ali refused to pay the customary tribute to the Sultan, and had the boldness to remove the Turkish guards from Mohammed's tomb at Medina and to appoint his own Arab soldiers in their stead—an act which was an open repudiation of the Sultan's authority as the Khalif of Islam. This bold proceeding brought matters to a crisis; and, after some efforts at negotiation, Sultan Mahmoud II. sent a peremptory order to the Pasha of Egypt to restore the Turkish guards to the Prophet's tomb, to promptly pay his annual tribute and to acknowledge himself the Sultan's vassal. Mehemet Ali bluntly rejected the Sultan's demands, whereupon the Sultan declared war against his rebellious vassal, A. D. 1839.

A large and well-equipped Turkish army under Hafiz Pasha crossed the Euphrates and fought a battle with the Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha at Nisibis, on the Euphrates, June 25, 1839. Entire regiments in the Turkish army deserted to the Egyptians; and those which remained loyal to the Sultan's standard were routed with the loss of all their artillery, baggage and stores. An Ottoman fleet which left Constantinople, July 6, 1839, to attack Alexandria reached the latter city a week later, and was at once surrendered to the Egyptians by its treacherous commander.

The Ottoman Empire was again at the mercy of the victorious Pasha of Egypt; and Constantinople would have been taken had not Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia come to the rescue of the young Sultan ABDUL MEDJID, the son and successor of Mahmoud II., who had died a few days after the defeat of his army at Nisibis, June, 1839. France was anxious to place Mehemet Ali on the Turkish throne; but the other four Great Powers, by the Quadruple Treaty of London in

Interven-
tion of
Great
Britain,
France
and
Russia.

Mehemet
Ali's
Fresh
Defiance
of the
Sultan.

Battle of
Nisibis.

Loss
of the
Turkish
Fleet.

Interven-
tion of
Great
Britain,
France,
Austria
and
Prussia.

the summer of 1840, sustained the claims of the young Abdul Medjid. The British, Austrian and Turkish fleets bombarded Beyreut and Acre, thus expelling the Egyptian garrisons from those Syrian forts and aiding the Ottoman forces to recover Syria for the young Sultan. Mehemet Ali was forced to restore the Ottoman fleet and to withdraw his armies from Crete and Asia Minor.

Mehemet Ali Coerced by the Allies.

By a treaty signed February 13, 1841, Egypt was left in possession of Mehemet Ali and his successors in the direct line, but all his conquests in his first war with Sultan Mahmoud II. were restored to the Sultan. The Pasha of Egypt was to pay a specified annual tribute to the Sultan of Turkey and to render him military and naval aid when summoned to do so. Mehemet Ali continued to rule Egypt until 1848, when his mind gave way and he was succeeded by his son IBRAHIM PASHA, who died two months afterward, November 9, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew ABBAS PASHA.

His Successors.

Russia's Wars with the Circassians under Schamyl.

For more than thirty years, from 1827 to 1859, the Russians were engaged in a struggle with the warlike Circassians of the Caucasus region, who were led by their hero-prophet Schamyl. The most famous events of this struggle were the Russian storming and capture of Himri, October 8, 1832, and the taking of Akulgo by storm by the Russians in 1843, on which occasion they lost twelve thousand men killed and wounded. In 1845 Prince Woronzoff was put in command of the Russian armies in Circassia. Prince Woronzoff was defeated by Schamyl near Tiflis in 1853, while another Russian army was also defeated by a Circassian force. The Russians finally effected the conquest of Circassia by the capture of Schamyl in 1859.

SECTION VIII.—AGITATION IN FRANCE, GERMANY AND ITALY (A. D. 1830–1848).

Louis Philippe, A. D. 1830–1848.

His Difficulties.

LOUIS PHILIPPE's government, erected upon the unstable foundation of the sovereignty of the French people, was exposed to many attacks, both from the Legitimists, or partisans of the elder branch of the Bourbons, and from the republicans. Only the bourgeoisie, or prosperous middle class, who, being intent upon gain and the peaceable enjoyment of their earnings, could find their safety and object in a constitutional monarchy, were satisfied with the "Citizen King"; and Louis Philippe depended upon that class for support. But, as he neglected to give the less wealthy class of citizens any share of political power by extending the suffrage, he did not have many adherents. He did not know how to win the hearts of the French people by greatness of mind and noble actions. As he possessed immense wealth, he made

use of his exalted station to constantly increase his property, and thus incurred the reproach of selfishness, avarice and cupidity—a reproach which also attached in a greater or less degree to his Councilors, Ministers and other officials, who were accused of covetousness and venality; thus infecting his entire government with the stain of corruption.

The bourgeoisie, or middle class, had appealed loudly to the lower ranks of the French people to support the Charter against the tyrannical ordinances of Charles X., but when the Legitimist monarchy was overthrown and the aid of the lower classes was no longer needed they were expected to relapse into their previous condition. The bourgeoisie also hated the peerage and sought all the political power for themselves. But there were some men among them who entertained more liberal ideas, among whom were Dupont de l'Eure, Lafitte and others, who were thorough republicans. Louis Philippe himself professed the most liberal sentiments, saying publicly on one occasion: "I am but a bridge to arrive at a republic."

**Bourgeoisie
and
Lower
Classes.**

But the "Citizen King's" real feelings were with M. de Broglie and M. Guizot, who opposed concession of freedom to the French people, wished to strengthen the royal prerogative and regarded the Revolution of July, 1830, as having been effected simply for the reestablishment of the Charter. Some of the most zealous republicans, considering themselves betrayed by the election of the "Citizen King," felt disposed to unite with another class of the French people, composed mainly of unoccupied and dissatisfied young men, who denounced what they considered Louis Philippe's treachery and aimed to excite a war of opinion throughout Europe. Amid all these elements the throne of the King of the French stood for a long time tottering, supported by a weak combination of royalists and bourgeoisie, maintaining its ascendancy by hollow concessions and only developing itself by artifice.

**Louis
Philippe's
Unten-
able
Throne.**

The capture of the Ministers of the dethroned Charles X. gave the severest trial of strength to Louis Philippe's government. The "Citizen King" made no effort to arrest these delinquents, and would have gladly allowed them to leave the country; but four of them were discovered at some distance from Paris as they were seeking to escape under false passports, and were brought back to the capital by zealous patriots. The government was obliged to send them to the Chamber of Peers for trial, and that body condemned them to lifelong imprisonment. The excitement which their arrest had caused produced the most formidable riots in Paris, which it required the National Guard three days to suppress.

**Disposal
of the
Ministers
of
Charles
X.**

The Paris republicans were extremely violent in their measures, and many of them were fanatical. Frequent attempts to assassinate the

**Repub-
lican
Violence.**

king, made by half-witted persons, who, upon being brought to trial, openly derided all constituted authority, and who were identified with the republican party by its enemies, brought discredit upon that party, thus obliging it to remain silent.

Legitimist
Insurrections.

The Legitimists likewise injured their cause by an insurrection in the South of France, which was immediately suppressed by the government. But the Bourbon dynasty was too obnoxious to the masses of the French people for the Legitimist outbreaks against the "Citizen King" and the Ministry of the "*juste milieu*" to be successful. The erection of the white banner of the Bourbons on the anniversary of the assassination of the Duke of Berry excited a disturbance, a result of which was the destruction of the archiepiscopal palace, February 15, 1831. The Duchess of Berry, whose son, the Duke of Bordeaux, was the legitimate heir to the French crown, attempted to excite a Legitimist rising in La Vendée in the winter of 1831; but she was betrayed by one of her followers and cast into prison, where she gave birth to a daughter and was obliged to confess a secret marriage to an Italian nobleman. She was at once permitted to retire to Sicily amid the general ridicule of the public, thus obliging her partisans to remain quiet and thus ending the first effort to establish "Henry V." on the throne of his ancestors. The Legitimists, headed by the gray-haired poet Chateaubriand, now practically abandoned their hopes of elevating "Henry V.," Duke of Bordeaux and Count de Chambord, to the French throne and retired sullenly into the suburb of St. Germaine.

Republican
Outbreaks.

The republicans also gave Louis Philippe's government much trouble. A sanguinary republican outbreak at Lyons in 1831 was suppressed with difficulty, and the government caused the prisoners taken in the insurrection to be banished or imprisoned for long terms. A republican outbreak in Paris in 1832, at the funeral of General Lamarque, lasted five hours and was suppressed only after great loss of life.

Republican
Journals.

The republicans thereafter refrained from further acts of violence, but made constant efforts to increase the number of their partisans by diffusing their opinions in journals and by means of secret societies. The journal *Nationale*, under the editorship of Armand Carrel, and, after his death in a duel, of Armand Marrast, was the much-persecuted and much-punished organ of the republican party.

Socialism
and
Communism.

But the republicans soon divided. The moderate republicans sought only to attack Louis Philippe's government and aimed at revolutionizing the affairs of state; but others, like Proudhon, declared property to be robbery and threatened hostility to all who were in possession of anything; while others, like Louis Blanc, flattered the self-love and self-respect of the working-classes by a high estimate of their functions and importance, advocated the equality of capital and labor and de-

wounded better payment and greater security to labor from the state. These men endeavored to revolutionize social relations and to put in practice the doctrines of Socialism and Communism, as advocated by Fourier and Proudhon. Their watchwords were "Liberté, Egalité and Fraternité"; and the essence of their doctrine was hatred of the bourgeoisie. These Communistic and Socialistic ideas spread and increased. The members of the Socialistic secret societies sought the king's life, but Louis Philippe escaped eight attempts at assassination with wonderful good fortune.

The French government's energy in its intervention in Belgian affairs, forcing the Dutch garrison at Antwerp to capitulate, gained it a great degree of popularity at home. Although France joined Great Britain, Spain and Portugal in a Quadruple Alliance to support the claims of the infant Queen Isabella II. of Spain, Louis Philippe secretly allowed Don Carlos to travel from London through France to Spain without informing his Prime Minister, Marshal Soult, who considered this treatment an indignity and therefore resigned office. His successor, Marshal Gerard, pursued the same policy. The frequent insurrections had filled the prisons of France; and Marshal Gerard attempted to have a general amnesty granted for all political offenses, and resigned when the king disapproved of his course, October, 1834.

A new Ministry under Guizot and Thiers then came into power; but, as this Ministry did not possess the confidence of the Chambers, it was dissolved in February, 1835. The Chambers chiefly manifested their opposition to the Ministry by refusing to provide for the payment of twenty-five million francs to the United States as indemnity for French spoliations on American commerce during Napoleon's wars, although a treaty to that effect had been made in 1831. President Jackson's hostile attitude speedily brought the French Chambers to terms, and the new Ministry succeeded in carrying an act providing for the payment of the indemnity.

On July 28, 1835, while King Louis Philippe was reviewing the troops of the line and the National Guard under arms in Paris, a terrific explosion from an infernal machine killed Marshal Mortier, General Lachasse and twelve other persons and wounded about thirty others; but the king and his three sons escaped almost miraculously. The contriver of the machine was Fieschi, a Corsican, who was siezed immediately, and was guillotined February 19, 1836. His two accomplices were also guillotined, but their execution did not deter others from similar attempts.

The Ministry sought to make capital out of this attempted regicide and induced the Chambers to pass three laws at their next session greatly restricting popular liberty. One of these laws was directed

**Quad-
ruple
Alliance.**

**Ministries
of
Marshals
Soult and
Gerard.**

**Ministry
of Guizot
and
Thiers.**

**American
Claims.**

**Fieschi's
Infernal
Machine.**

**Restrict-
ive Laws.**

against the press. Another allowed jurors to vote by ballot and provided that a mere majority should in future be necessary to convict, instead of two-thirds, as hitherto. A third law provided for the constitution of courts of assize and the treatment of contumacious prisoners. Restrictions were also placed upon personal liberty and the privilege of forming unions.

**Ministries
of Soult
and
Thiers.**

At the beginning of 1836 the Minister of Finance reported a large deficit in the public revenue and suggested an increase of taxation or a reduction of the interest on the public debt from five to three per cent. As the capitalists, who supported Louis Philippe, held most of the debt, the king preferred an increase of taxation; but, as the Chambers were unwilling to impose new burdens on the French people, the second Ministry of Marshal Soult was succeeded by a new Cabinet under Louis Adolphe Thiers, February 22, 1836. Thiers boldly supported the Republic of Cracow, the Bey of Tunis and the queen-regent Maria Christina of Spain; but, as King Louis Philippe refused to intervene in Spanish affairs, on account of the reëstablishment of the Spanish Constitution of 1812, Thiers resigned in September, 1836, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Count Molé, who strove to preserve peace with foreign powers and internal tranquillity. The ex-Ministers of Charles X. and many others who were imprisoned for political offenses were pardoned.

**Count
Molé's
Ministry.**

**Prince
Charles
Louis
Napoleon
Bona-
parte.**

The Duke of Reichstadt, the imbecile son of Napoleon I. and whom the Bonaparte family recognized as Napoleon II., having died in 1832 at the age of twenty-one, Prince Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the great Emperor Napoleon's nephew, became the heir of the Bonaparte interests. This prince was the son of Louis Bonaparte, at one time King of Holland, Napoleon's brother, and his wife, Hortense Beauharnais, the daughter of Josephine by her first husband, General Beauharnais. On October 29, 1836, this Bonaparte prince attempted to excite a revolt of the garrison of Strassbourg for the avowed purpose of overthrowing the Orleanist monarchy and reëstablishing the Bonapartist Empire; but the troops refused to join him, and he was arrested and sent by way of South America to New York.

**His
Effort at
Strass-
bourg.**

**His
Effort at
Boulogne.**

He returned to Europe and took up his residence in Switzerland, whence the French government attempted to expel him; but he voluntarily left that country, in order to avoid involving it in war on his account. He made a second attempt to overthrow Louis Philippe's government by landing at Boulogne, August 6, 1840. Armed and uniformed, he led his followers into the town, carrying his hat on the point of his sword, while his followers shouted: "Vive l'Empereur!" Some of the garrison were told that Louis Philippe had been dethroned by a revolution and were about to place themselves under the prince's

command, when their captain awoke and rushed out of his quarters and restored order by shouting: "Vive le Roi!" The prince fired a pistol at the captain and wounded a private soldier, but the people now sided with the garrison. The young Bonaparte and some of his followers attempted to escape by swimming to the steamboat which had brought them; but boats were put after them, and the prince and many of his party were captured and securely imprisoned in the castle of Boulogne. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was sentenced to lifelong imprisonment in the fortress of Ham, whence he succeeded in making his escape to England in May, 1846.

**His
Imprison-
ment at
Ham.**

The refusal of the Republic of Mexico to indemnify France for the losses sustained by French subjects during the internal troubles of that republic led to a bombardment of the city of Vera Cruz and the strong castle of San Juan de Ulloa by a French fleet under Rear-Admiral Baudin, who obtained possession of the city and castle, November 28, 1838. Mexico declared war against France; but the mediation of Mr. Pakenham, the British ambassador to Mexico, led to an amicable settlement of the difficulties.

**Short
War with
Mexico.**

When Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, threw off his allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey in 1839 and conquered Syria, France, under M. Thiers, who was again Prime Minister, demanded that Mehemet Ali should be allowed to retain Syria and Egypt; but Great Britain insisted that Mehemet Ali should restore Syria to the Sultan, and induced Austria, Prussia and Russia to enter into a Quadruple Alliance with her by a treaty at London, in 1840, without consulting France on the question. In pursuance of the Quadruple Treaty, an allied British, Austrian and Turkish fleet bombarded Beyreut and Acre and forced Mehemet Ali to evacuate Syria; but he was allowed to retain Egypt in independent hereditary possession for himself and for transmission to his posterity.

**France
and the
Quad-
ruple
Alliance
on the
Eastern
Question.**

The French regarded the Quadruple Treaty as an act of treachery on Great Britain's part and considered their nation insulted. The French gave way to violent expressions of feeling and avowed a desire for war with Great Britain. The Ministry manifested the same war-like spirit, and King Louis Philippe consented to an increase of the French army to six hundred and thirty-nine thousand men. M. Thiers resumed the plan for the fortification of Paris, which before had been rejected by the Chambers; and the city was soon surrounded with an enceinte and a system of detached forts. But the king refused to allow his Prime Minister to denounce the Quadruple Treaty of London formally to the Chambers; whereupon Thiers resigned and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Marshal Soult, but whose master-spirit was M. Guizot, October, 1840.

**Fortifica-
tion of
Paris.**

**Ministries
of Thiers
and
Guizot.**

Return of
Napo-
leon's
Remains.

M. Guizot settled the quarrel with Great Britain; and, as a peace-offering, Great Britain consented that the Emperor Napoleon's remains should be removed from St. Helena to Paris. They were disinterred and were conveyed to France by a French squadron under the command of the Prince de Joinville, the son of King Louis Philippe. The squadron arrived at Cherbourg, December 8, 1840, and thence to Havre, whence they were conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they were interred, with the most imposing ceremonies and in the presence of a vast multitude, in the Hôtel des Invalides, December 15, 1840, as already noticed.

Louis
Philippe's
Sons.

The Duke of Orleans, King Louis Philippe's eldest son, the heir to the French throne, died July 13, 1842, from the effects of being thrown from his carriage. He left two sons, the Count de Paris and the Duke de Chartres. The Count de Paris, born in 1838, thus became the heir to the French throne.

Guizot's
Peaceful
Foreign
Policy.

M. Guizot, who directed the policy of the French government from 1840 until the Revolution of February, 1848, continued the fortification of Paris and coincided fully with Louis Philippe's wish to preserve the peace of Europe. By every means in his power he preserved France from European hostilities, brought about an exchange of visits between King Louis Philippe and Queen Victoria, and promoted the king's intrigues for the aggrandizement of the Orleans dynasty and for its establishment by intermarriages with other royal courts of Europe.

His
Tyrannical
Domestic
Policy.

Fortifica-
tion of
Paris.

M. Guizot's domestic policy was characterized by pride, tyranny, blindness and a constant succession of encroachments upon the liberties of the French people. During the entire term of his administration M. Guizot continued the work of fortifying Paris, until the entire city was surrounded with a girdle of impregnable fortifications, the guns of which were expected to serve equally well in repelling a foreign foe and in crushing any revolt in Paris. Secure in the pride of his power, King Louis Philippe boasted that he held France in the hollow of his hand; and Guizot continued to rule, well satisfied with the apparent success of his policy and convinced of the truth of his own saying that an unpopular government is the most successful.

Spanish
Bourbon
Mar-
riages
and
Relations
with
Great
Britain.

In 1846 the Spanish marriages caused a coolness between the French and British governments. Queen Isabella II. of Spain desired a husband. The British government wished her to marry Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. Louis Philippe desired to strengthen his own dynasty by intermarriage with that of the Spanish Bourbons, and selected her own cousin, Don Francisco d'Assis, Duke of Cadiz, as a husband for Queen Isabella II. Great Britain strenuously opposed this match, but the French king's policy triumphed. The Queen of Spain married her cousin, October 10, 1846; and on the same day the Infanta Louise of

Spain was married to the Duke of Montpensier, Louis Philippe's youngest son. These royal marriages deeply offended Great Britain, and coolness and suspicion characterized the relations of France and Great Britain thenceforth until the downfall of Louis Philippe.

In 1847 a strong feeling was excited in France by the events in Italy and Switzerland, and the policy of M. Guizot was giving great offense to the liberals, while an action for bribery against General Cubieres and the Minister, Teste, and the atrocious murder of the Duchess of Praslin in her bed-chamber by her husband disclosed the total lack of morality in the upper classes of France, and the feeling became prevalent that the Orleanist monarchy, resting on such rotten supports, could not endure, while the demand for elective reform became the watchword of the day, with the hope of infusing fresh vigor into the government and the Chamber.

Weakness of Louis Philippe's Government.

During the whole of Louis Philippe's reign—a period of seventeen years—France was engaged, at an enormous cost of blood and treasure, in supporting her colonists in Algiers against the indefatigable Arab chieftain, Abd-el-Kader. This redoubtable warrior, although frequently defeated, expelled from his territories and deprived of his authority, continued to annoy the French colony by his bold raids and restless enterprise. To secure the peace of the French colonists, the French government was obliged to keep a force of almost a hundred thousand men constantly under arms in Algiers.

Wars with Abd el-Kader in Algiers.

In 1844 Muley Abderrahman, Emperor of Morocco, formed an alliance with Abd-el-Kader; but the French defeated the united Arab and Moorish forces in the great battle of Isly, while the French navy bombarded the Moorish ports of Tangier and Mogadore, thus compelling the Emperor of Morocco to renounce his alliance with Abd-el-Kader and make peace with France.

War with Morocco.

In 1845 the French under General Pelissier inflicted a dreadful act of vengeance on the Ouled Riahs, a tribe of Kabyles, one of the Berber nations, who had never been subdued. The Ouled Riahs fled to their mountain cave on Pelissier's approach. The French commander then caused fagots to be piled up against the entrance to the cave and informed the natives that these fagots would be set on fire unless they came out and surrendered their arms and horses. They refused at first, but afterward replied that they would surrender if the French would retire to a distance. Pelissier rejected this condition and caused fire to be set to the fagots. The French heard dreadful noises in the cavern. Some of the Kabyles were for submission. Others were as stubbornly for martyrdom. The latter prevailed, but some of the unfortunates escaped. The French commander again exhorted the Kabyles to surrender, but they stubbornly refused. Some women tried

Cruel Extinction of the Ouled Riahs.

to escape; but their husbands and others shot them in the act, firmly resolved that all should suffer martyrdom together. Pelissier then ordered the fire to be put out and sent a flag of truce into the cavern, but the natives drove away the bearer of the flag with a shower of musketry. The French then rekindled the fire, and the appalling cries of the victims were heard echoing through the windings of the cavern, but gradually these sounds died away. When the fires were extinguished the French entered the cavern, where they found the bodies of a thousand human beings—men, women and children—who had died amid suffocating smoke and profound darkness, trampled under foot and piled in heaps. Only thirty-seven escaped, and the Ouled Riahs were exterminated.

Abd-el-Kader's Surrender.

Abd-el-Kader's opposition ended only with his surrender to the French at the close of 1847. In violation of the pledge of the French commander, the captured Arab chieftain was conveyed to France and imprisoned in the chateau of Amboise. After being held in captivity for a long time, he was finally released and transported to Turkey. The surrender of Abd-el-Kader completed the French conquest of Algeria, which became the French province of *Algeria*.

Algeria.

Denmark and Its Constitution.

In the meantime the Scandinavian kingdoms remained unshaken by the revolutionary tempests which disturbed the other states of Continental Europe. Frederick VI. of Denmark died in 1839, leaving the Danish crown to his son CHRISTIAN VIII., who died in 1848 and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK VII., who gave his subjects a constitution, since which time Denmark has been a constitutional monarchy.

Sweden and Norway under the Bernadotte Dynasty.

Sweden's history since the fall of Napoleon has been peaceful and uneventful. We have alluded to the election of the French Marshal Bernadotte, Napoleon's old comrade, as Crown Prince of Sweden in 1810; and also to the cession of Norway to the King of Sweden by the King of Denmark in 1814. Sweden and Norway have since been separate independent kingdoms under one sovereign, and the king must reside half of each year in each of his two kingdoms. The Storting, or legislature of Norway, is composed of representatives of the four Estates of the kingdom—nobles, clergy, burghers and peasants—and is in some respects the most democratic assembly in Europe. Upon the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte became King of Sweden and Norway with the title of CHARLES XIV. He died March 8, 1844, and was succeeded by his son OSCAR I., who died in 1859, leaving the crowns of Sweden and Norway to his son CHARLES XV., who died September 18, 1872, and was succeeded by his brother OSCAR II.

As a result of the revolutionary movements of 1830-'31, the German governments obtained a complete triumph; but they outraged the peo-

ple's sense of justice by the use which they made of their victory, especially when, upon the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, in June, 1837, the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover were separated for the first time since 1714, and her uncle ERNEST AUGUSTUS became King of Hanover. This king abolished the constitution which his predecessor had granted to the Estates of his kingdom, thus restoring absolutism. Undismayed by the opposition which this arbitrary proceeding occasioned, Ernest Augustus required an oath of allegiance from all the officers of the crown. Seven professors of the Göttingen University, among whom were the brothers Jacob and William Grimm, refused to comply with the king's demand, whereupon they were deprived of their chairs and some of them were banished from the country. When the Estates of Hanover were incompetent to pass resolutions, from a deficiency of numbers, the absentees were replaced by election from the minority. These measures produced a deep gulf between the people and the government in Hanover, and the people were profoundly dissatisfied with the "police state." The government was denounced by means of the press, literature and poetry; and the people joyfully saluted every opposition to the state officials.

**Tyranny
of King
Ernest
Augustus
of
Hanover.**

Amid all these contests and divisions, the aspirations for national and political unity ran through the whole public life of the German people; and for the realization of this desire Prussia came forward in 1827 to assist by establishing the Zollverein, or Customs Union, the foundation of German unity.

**Prussia
and the
Zoll-
verein.**

The triumph of absolutism in Germany was owing mainly to the influence of the two great German powers—Austria and Prussia. Since 1815 Prince Metternich, the Prime Minister of the Emperor Francis I., had been the real ruler of the Austrian Empire, and he exerted himself resolutely for the maintenance of despotism. He remained at the head of the Austrian government after the death of Francis I., March 2, 1835, and the accession of his weak son, FERDINAND I., directing the affairs of Austria until the Revolutions of 1848.

**Prince
Metter-
nich's
Despot-
ism in
Austria.**

As a result of the reactionary tendencies of the German state governments, the opposition between the German people and their governments grew fiercer daily. The polite literature of "Young Germany"; the excitable poetry of Herwegh, Hoffman von Fallersleben and other singers of political freedom; the fearless daily press; the free-thinking and anti-Church writings of young philosophers and theologians; the discourses and doctrines of the "friends of light" in the Protestant Church and of the "German Catholics" in the Roman Catholic Church—all these spiritual aspirations disclosed the profound unrest of a great part of the German people, their deep dissatisfaction with pre-

**German
Popular
Unrest.**

Karl
Marx and
Socialism.

vailing conditions in Church and State and their aversion to the system retained and sustained by their state governments. An extreme phase of the general German popular unrest was the first appearance of German Socialism, as exemplified in the celebrated *Manifesto* of the political philosopher Karl Marx, issued in 1847—the beginning of a propaganda which has grown to gigantic proportions in Germany in recent years and which has spread all over the civilized world, making wonderful progress everywhere. Frederick Engels and Lassalle were worthy disciples of Karl Marx, the latter organizing the Social Democratic party in Germany in 1864.

Frederick
William
IV. of
Prussia,
A. D.
1840–
1861.

Frederick William III. of Prussia died June 7, 1840, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., who commenced his reign by granting an amnesty to all political offenders, and whose language and conduct at the beginning of his reign induced his subjects to believe that he was the constitutional king they had long hoped for. He was a sovereign of high accomplishments and of active mind, and considered himself obliged to make some concessions to the spirit of the age, such as throwing open the courts of justice and permitting oral pleadings, also diminishing ecclesiastical restraints by an edict of toleration. He made Berlin the chief center of German learning and science and did much to improve and adorn his capital. He also paid much attention to the welfare of his subjects, but he held fast to absolute government. His subjects vainly appealed to him to grant a constitution, reminding him of his father's promises. At a *United Diet*, composed of a union of the various provincial diets of Prussia, April 11, 1847, he would not grant a constitution under any circumstances, thus extinguishing the last hope of the Prussian people.

His
Absolu-
tism.

The
United
Diet
and the
Prussian
People.

In the United Diet at Berlin, in spite of all the restrictions contained in the patent of February 3, 1847, summoning this Diet, so violent an opposition was manifested, previous promises were so eloquently referred to, the just claims of a civilized nation to a free press and other political privileges were so eloquently urged, that the old system of government seemed no longer tenable. The Prussian people proudly sustained the proceedings of an assembly which exhibited such brilliant oratorical powers and such a fullness of intelligence and judgment. While the educated and the wealthy were following with great interest the internal struggles in Church and State and viewing anxiously the troubles in trade, where a series of bankruptcies had deprived thousands of their worldly possessions, famine invaded the huts of the poor, who were unable to procure provisions on account of the increase in the prices of the necessaries of life.

Social
Distress
in
Germany.

The terrible distress which produced pestilence in Upper Silesia and which caused scenes of Irish misery in many trading and manufactur-

ing centers of Germany, along with the exciting literature in the hands of the lower classes, produced a widespread popular feeling, which at length developed into general insurrections at Stuttgart, Munich and other towns of Germany. These disturbances were soon suppressed by the military and the police, and a plentiful harvest and the benevolence of the rich soon put an end to the temporary distress; but the increasing inequality in property and in the enjoyments of life were now revealed in their fullest extent for the first time, and men gazed with horror at the misery and wretchedness of the lower classes.

The popular disaffection was aroused to its highest degree by the conduct of King Louis I. of Bavaria, who had succeeded his father Maximilian Joseph I. on the latter's death, in 1825, and who had now surrendered himself to the wiles of Lola Montez, a Spanish courtesan, and had been led by her into acts of folly and extravagance. The Ultramontane party, which had ruled the old king for many years, quarreled with this courtesan, whom the king had created Countess of Landsfeldt, and was suddenly menaced with loss of political power. Louis I. dismissed the Ministry of Abel and the leaders of the Ultramontane party in the Bavarian universities. This produced a disturbance among the Bavarian people; and when King Louis I., in his indignation at the students for sustaining the Ultramontane party and not showing the respect to the insolent courtesan that he required, ordered the University of Munich to be closed and commanded the students to quit the place, an insurrection broke out, which forced King Louis I. to recall the suspension and to dismiss the Countess of Landsfeldt.

During this period there was great enmity in Switzerland between the Catholics and the Protestants and between the conservatives and the radicals. In the Canton of Aargau the radical government had suppressed the eight monasteries within its territory as "meeting-places of rebellion" and had confiscated their property. The protests of the seven Catholic cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg and Valais—produced no effect upon the Swiss Diet. The division increased when the Ultramontane government of Lucerne, with the support of the people of the canton, called in Jesuits to superintend the education of the youth and repelled the radicals, who desired to effect a revolution by means of a volunteer expedition. The contest then developed into a desperate struggle between Jesuitism and radicalism.

The seven Catholic cantons demanded punishment of the volunteers, legal protection against similar undertakings and the restoration of the monasteries of Aargau; and when their demands were rejected they formed a *Sonderbund*, or "special confederation," for mutual defense against internal and external attacks. The radicals, who, by means

**Misrule
of King
Louis I.
of
Bavaria.**

**Lola
Montez.**

**Politico-
Religious
Dissen-
sions in
Switzer-
land.**

**The
Catholic
Sonder-
bund
and the
Swiss
Radicals.**

of the *Putsche*, had a majority in the Diet at Vaud, Geneva and other places, caused the passage of a resolution dissolving the Sonderbund as incompatible with the general government of Switzerland and banished the Jesuits.

**Civil
War in
Switz-
land.**

As the members of the Sonderbund refused to submit to the decisions of the Diet, an appeal was made to arms, thus involving Switzerland in civil war. Contrary to expectation, the struggle was soon over. A federal army under General Dufour subdued Freiburg and Lucerne with little resistance, whereupon the other Catholic cantons readily submitted. They were obliged to dissolve the Sonderbund, to banish the Jesuits, to change their respective cantonal governments and to pay the expenses of the war.

**Dissolu-
tion
of the
Sonder-
bund.**

France, Austria and Prussia offered their mediation when too late. The French found the Sonderbund already dissolved; and when it became known that M. Guizot, the French Prime Minister, took the part of the Jesuits the dissatisfaction with Louis Philippe's government in France increased. The Swiss took advantage of the situation to remodel their federal constitution and to establish a stronger central government.

**Agitation
for
Italian
Unity.**

The hope for Italian unity and liberty still blazed forth. Besides the radical party of Young Italy, there was a moderate party composed of the best men of Piedmont, who proposed to accomplish the same purpose by a peaceful revolution of public sentiment. This party looked to King Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead them to success. This party also existed in Tuscany. Although the Italian press was trammelled by state control, a number of able writers advocated their principles in political works, essays, novels and poems, and strove to rouse a determination in the Italians to become a free and united nation. The Pope and the Austrians were denounced as the foremost oppressors of Italy, the Pope being but the instrument of the Emperor of Austria, to whom he was indebted for his throne. The chief of these patriotic Italian writers were Cesare Balbo, the Abate Gioberti, Massimo d'Aze-glio, Giuseppe Giusti, the Marquis Gino Capponi, Baron Bettino Ricasoli and Alessandro Manzoni.

**Pope
Gregory
XVI.**

Pope Gregory XVI. was bitterly opposed to all reform and was the mere instrument of the Jesuits, whose power in the Roman Catholic Church was rapidly overshadowing everything else, while he took inspiration in political matters from the Emperor of Austria. The Pope's partisans were called *Gregoriani*.

**Pope
Pius IX.
and His
Liberal
Policy.**

After the death of Pope Gregory XVI., Cardinal Mastai Ferreti was elected Pope with the title of Pius IX., June 18, 1846. To the surprise and delight of all Italy, the new Head of the Church took the lead in reform, thus beginning his pontificate by reversing the illiberal

policy of his predecessor. He intended to be a constitutional Pope, and his first acts were full of promise. He liberated all political prisoners within his dominions and extended a general amnesty to all political offenders. He granted his subjects freedom of the press and of speech and the right to petition for a redress of grievances, improved the administration of justice, gave the city of Rome a liberal municipal government, subjected the monasteries and convents to a rigid inspection and promised other reforms. He also took steps for a confederation of all the Italian states.

Thus Pope Pius IX. was at first a zealous political reformer, and the liberal course pursued by him at once aroused a spirit of republicanism and nationality throughout Italy. The fiery Italians were seized with a mighty enthusiasm, and new hopes sprang up in the bosoms of the Italian patriots. The Gregorians were indignant at the Pope's course, and the ultra republicans were angry because his course made him the most popular man in Italy; but the great mass of the Pope's own subjects were delighted, as the reform policy of His Holiness gave promise of a better day for the Roman people.

In the spring of 1847 there were a number of disturbances in the streets of Rome, and the papal troops and the municipal police were unable to maintain order. The liberal party demanded the formation of a National Guard; and, in spite of the opposition of the Austrian government to this plan, the Pope consented to the formation of a National Guard in Rome and in all the Papal States, July, 1847. To punish Pius IX. for yielding to the popular demand, the Austrian government sent a strong force of Croats into the Pope's dominions; and this force occupied Ferrara, in spite of the protests of the papal legate.

The success of the reform movement in Rome encouraged the other Italian states to wring constitutions from their rulers, who for the moment were obliged to yield to the demands of their subjects, though they relied upon Austria to crush the popular movement throughout Italy. The death of Maria Louisa, Duchess of Parma, the little-loved and little-respected widow of Napoleon I., December 18, 1847, made the ducal throne of Parma vacant.

An insurrection broke out at Palermo in January, 1848; and the Sicilians rose in revolt against their sovereign, King Ferdinand V. of Naples, established a provisional government and asserted their independence. A bloody war ensued between the Sicilians and the Neapolitans, and Ferdinand V. of Naples was forced to grant a liberal constitution. Archduke Leopold of Tuscany and King Charles Albert of Sardinia did the same; and the Duke of Modena, a zealous defender of the doctrine of the "divine right" of princes, saved himself from the vengeance of his subjects by flight.

**Result
of His
Reform
Policy.**

**Out-
breaks
in Rome
and
Austrian
Interven-
tion.**

**Reform
Move-
ments in
Italy.**

**Sicily's
Revolt
against
Naples.**

**Italian
Constitu-
tions.**

King
Charles
Albert of
Sardinia
and the
Austri-
ans.

King Charles Albert of Sardinia placed himself at the head of the Italian movement and declared his readiness to go to war with Austria if the Austrian troops advanced farther into the papal territory. These events aroused the hopes of the Italians for national unity and civil freedom, and their fiery animosity was directed against the two powers which stood in the way of this object—the Jesuits and the Austrians. With the shouts for Pío Nono were mingled vivas for Gioberti, the enemy of the Jesuits, and cries of “Death to the Germans” against Austria.

SECTION IX.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 IN FRANCE, GERMANY, HUNGARY, ITALY.

Reform
Banquets
in
France
Forbidden.

DURING the latter part of 1847 and in the beginning of 1848 numerous reform banquets were held in different parts of France, in which the shortcomings of the government of King Louis Philippe were unsparingly attacked in bold speeches and toasts. The speech from the throne denounced the whole reform movement on the ground that it was based on blind and angry passions. Arrangements were made for the holding of a reform banquet in one of the arrondissements of Paris, on the 22d of February, 1848, Washington's birthday; but the Ministry issued a proclamation forbidding it, and made preparations to suppress it by military force if it were attempted. The Chamber of Deputies, then in session, warmly discussed the arbitrary measures of the government; and the opposition members resolved upon the impeachment of the Ministers for violating the constitution; but the French people were already too much excited to be calmed by such a measure as this.

Revolution
in
Paris
Begun,
February
22, 1848.

The reform banquet arranged for the 22d of February, 1848, was not held; but, on the morning of that day, large crowds collected in Paris, blocked up the avenues leading to the legislative Chambers and made offensive demonstrations before the house of M. Guizot. Crowds of artisans, men in blouses, students and the refuse of the streets paraded through the squares and thoroughfares of the French capital, with the cry of “Reform! Down with Guizot!” The crowds increased hourly, the military acted with forbearance and the police was no match for the mob. About noon a large crowd assembled in front of the Church of the Madeleine, but were easily dispersed by the troops. In the evening disturbances began in the French capital. Gunsmiths' shops were broken open, lamps were extinguished, barricades were erected, guards were attacked, and the streets were filled with soldiers. In the Chambers, Odillon Barrot moved an impeachment of the Prime Minister.

On the morning of February 23d the streets of Paris were filled with large crowds of people, barricades were erected, and some fighting occurred between the people and the troops, in which several persons were killed. In obedience to the request of the National Guards, who fraternized with the people, the king dismissed the Ministry of M. Guizot and called on Count Molé to form a new Cabinet, at the same time promising reform. This action of the king produced a lull and occasioned great delight among the excited populace, crowds marching through the streets with songs and glad shouts, the barricades being removed and the houses being illuminated; but the wanton discharge of musketry upon a large crowd by the guards assembled before M. Guizot's hotel, by which fifty-two persons were killed and wounded, again excited the fury of the populace, who paraded through the streets with a bier covered with dead bodies, crying: "To arms!" "Down with the assassins!" "Down with Louis Philippe!" "Down with the Bourbons!" "We are slaughtered!" At midnight the alarum-bell was sounded, as a signal for the populace of the French capital to rise in their might to overthrow the reigning dynasty.

Street
Fighting
on
February
23.

Fall of
Guizot's
Ministry.

On the morning of February 24th the whole city of Paris was in possession of the people, the streets being closed up with barricades. At the Chateau d'Eau, a large stone building in front of the Palais Royal, a severe fight occurred between the people and the municipal guards; and the chateau was demolished by fire. The mob then marched to the Tuileries and demanded the abdication of the king. Louis Philippe signed an abdication in favor of his grandson, the young Count de Paris; but the Chambers would not accept the young prince, and Louis Philippe and his family fled to Neuilly, from which place they made their escape to England. The royal furniture was thrown out of the windows of the Tuileries and burned; the wines in the royal cellars were distributed among the multitude; the throne was carried through the streets and finally burned on the Place de la Bastille, and the royal carriages were burned at the Chateau d'Eau. Overwhelmed by the mob and amid the greatest confusion and shouts of "Vive la Republique!" the sturdy republican, Dupont de l'Eure, was carried to the chair in the Chamber of Deputies, where a provisional government was proclaimed, consisting of the following persons—M. Lamartine, Emanuel Arago, Ledru-Rollin, Garnier-Pages, Dupont de l'Eure, Lamoriciere, Cavaignac and Decoutrias. The provisional government was installed at the Hôtel de Ville and proclaimed the *Second French Republic*. The Chamber of Peers was immediately abolished. The poet M. Lamartine was the master-spirit of the new government. Every citizen of France was made an elector, and twenty-five years of age constituted eligibility for office; the penalty of death for political

February
24.

Abdica-
tion of
Louis
Philippe.

Second
French
Republic
Pro-
claimed.

offences was immediately abolished, and all slaves on territory subject to France were declared free.

**Measures
of
France's
Provisional
Government.**

On the 4th of March, 1848, the victims of the Revolution of February were solemnly interred, in the presence of nearly half a million of people, at the foot of a monument erected to the memory of the victims of the Revolution of July, 1830. France's new rulers directed their first efforts to the reëstablishment of order, and many grievances of which the people complained were removed. Fêtes, parades and illuminations were given daily for the public amusement. But the spirit of anarchy and restlessness was now rife for another insurrection. As the Revolution had been the work of the laboring classes, efforts were now taken by the provisional government to better their condition. National workshops were established in Paris, where the idle could find employment.

**National
Work-
shops.**

**Red Re-
publican
Out-
breaks.**

The moderate and Red Republicans had united to overturn the throne of Louis Philippe; but no sooner had the Republic been proclaimed than the animosity between those two parties broke forth anew, and when the Reds perceived that the control of public affairs was in the hands of the moderate party they began to conspire for another revolution. The first open opposition to the provisional government was made on the 16th of April, 1848; the object of the movement being the overthrow of the provisional government and the establishment of a Committee of Safety for the direction of public affairs. This movement and a rising of the various clubs of Paris were easily suppressed. Bloody riots occurred on the 23d and 24th of April, 1848, the days for the election of members for a permanent National Assembly.

**French
National
Assem-
bly.**

The elections throughout France resulted in large majorities for the moderate republicans; and on the 5th of May, 1848, the newly-elected National Assembly met in Paris and organized with the election of M. Buchez as president. On the following day, May 6, 1848, the members of the provisional government submitted their reports to the National Assembly and resigned their powers. On the 10th the National Assembly appointed M. Emanuel Arago, Garnier-Pages, M. Marie, M. Lamartine and Ledru-Rollin an executive committee to act in place of the provisional government.

**Communist
Rising of
May 15,
1848.**

On the 15th of May, 1848, an immense mob assembled in the streets of Paris, proceeded to the hall of the National Assembly, drove out the members and proclaimed Socialism and Communism, the imposition of taxes upon the rich for the benefit of the poor and the restoration of the guillotine. The mob also declared that France should send an army to Poland to drive the Russian troops from that country, and a heavy tax was levied on the rich to carry on the war for Poland. The mob also appointed an executive government composed of the Com-

munist leaders, M. Barbes, Blanqui, Flocon, Cabet, Albert, Raspail and Louis Blanc. This movement doubtless would have resulted in the most serious consequences had not the National Guard declared for the National Assembly, dispersed the mob at the point of the bayonet and restored order. The Communist leaders, Blanqui, Barbes, Raspail, Sobrier and Albert, were arrested and imprisoned.

The insurrection of May 15th was only a prelude to the great Communist Rebellion of June. Fearing another demonstration on an extensive scale, the government made the necessary preparations to meet it. Finding the burdens imposed upon the national treasury too heavy to be borne, the government, in June, resolved upon the discharge of the immense army of workmen, more than one hundred thousand in number, uselessly employed in Paris at the public expense. This alarmed the workmen, who immediately organized for another desperate struggle, for the purpose of bringing about the realization in practice of the theory of Communism and Socialism—a community of goods and manners. The party of law and order, which controlled the National Assembly, was resolved upon the complete annihilation of the Communist faction in the event of another appeal to arms.

Discharge and Dissatisfaction of the Public Workmen.

On the 22d of June, 1848, a deputation of five delegates, appointed by the workmen called on M. Marie, the Prime Minister of the Republic. After a short conference the deputation returned to the workmen, assuring them that they had nothing to expect from the government. This was the signal for riotous demonstrations. Large crowds collected in the evening at the Hôtel de Ville, the Place de la Bastille and other important points, crying for the downfall of the Republic and the elevation of Charles Louis Napo'con Bonaparte to the head of power. On the following morning, June 23d, it was found that the rioters had made considerable progress and thrown up barricades in various portions of the city. The principal insurgent barricades were in the Rue St. Denis, Rue du Faubourg St. Denis, Rue Villeneuve Bourbon, Rue de Clery and near the Porte St. Denis and the Porte St. Martin.

Great Communist Rebellion of June, 1848.

The government appointed General Cavaignac, then Minister of War, commander-in-chief of all the troops in Paris. The barricades near the Porte St. Denis were carried at the point of the bayonet. The insurgents there were aided by boys, and even by women, who appeared on the barricades, waving flags and other emblems. On the 24th the National Assembly declared Paris in a state of siege and appointed General Cavaignac dictator. A heavy musketry and artillery fire continued during the greater part of the day, and before evening the rebellion was suppressed on the left bank of the Seine, but a sanguinary struggle took place at the Clos St. Lazarre, on the right bank. The

General Cavaignac Made Dictator.

Terrible Street Fighting in Paris.

Death
of the
Arch-
bishop of
Paris.

conflict raged with great fury during the 25th. The government troops numbered three hundred thousand men and the insurgents one hundred and twenty thousand. A terrible struggle raged at the Pantheon, where the rebel barricades were captured after frightful carnage. In the evening of this day occurred one of the saddest events in this unhappy civil war. Monseigneur Affre, Archbishop of Paris, appeared at the Place de la Bastille for the laudable purpose of bringing about a pacification. On the appearance of the noble prelate both parties for a while ceased firing, but suddenly recommenced; and the venerable Archbishop received a mortal wound, and expired on the morning of the 27th.

Suppres-
sion
of the
Rebellion.

On the morning of the 26th the struggle was renewed with terrible fierceness; the principal scenes of action being the Faubourg St. Antoine, the Place Maubert and the vicinity of the Pantheon. At noon the insurgents at the Faubourg St. Antoine surrendered; but the other places were stormed, and the insurgent garrisons of each were killed or captured. The insurgent barricade at the corner of the Rue de la Roquette was attacked by the government troops under General Lamoriciere, after having carried all the rebel barricades in the Faubourg du Temple. From the Place de la Bastille, Lamoriciere's troops bombarded and cannonaded the insurgent works, when the falling of shells on some of the adjoining houses, several of which were set on fire, so frightened the insurgents that they fled out of the city.

Slaughter
and Ruin
in Paris.

Thus ended the great Rebellion of the Paris Communists in June, 1848. Never before had Paris witnessed such slaughter as during those four sanguinary days. The number of killed and wounded is not definitely known, but twenty-five thousand is probably not a very high estimate. One-fourth of the city was ruined. Several days were occupied in burying the dead and in repairing the damage inflicted on the city. On the 29th, June, 1848, General Cavaignac resigned his dictatorship into the hands of the National Assembly, and that body then appointed him Chief Executive of France.

New
French
Constitu-
tion.

Charles
Louis
Napoleon
Bona-
parte
Elected
President.

On the 4th of November, 1848, the French National Assembly, by a vote of seven hundred and thirty-nine in favor and thirty in opposition, adopted a Constitution giving France a republican form of government with one Legislative Assembly and vesting the executive power in a President to be elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. The candidates for the Presidency were General Cavaignac, General Changarnier, M. Lamartine, Raspail, Ledru-Rollin, Louis Blanc and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. To the surprise of all, the Presidential election resulted in the choice of Louis Napoleon, by a clear majority of three million five hundred and fifty-six thousand four hundred votes against all the other candidates combined. The Presi-

dent-elect was sworn into office on December 20, 1848, in the presence of the Assembly by M. Marrast, president of that body.

The Revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, was the signal for general popular risings in Germany, Italy and Hungary, which countries had long been disturbed by political and social agitation; and concessions which had been vainly demanded for thirty years by the liberal party in Germany were now extorted from every German ruler within three weeks. A propaganda which had its center in Paris stirred the revolutionary flame and diffused republican ideas broadcast over Europe, with a tincture of Communism and Socialism, as the means of arousing the lower classes.

The revolutionary movement in Germany began in Baden, as the active political life which always had distinguished that German Grand Duchy entitled it to lead the cause of reform in the German Fatherland. Thus, on the 29th of February, 1848, deputations with urgent petitions from every town in the Grand Duchy of Baden demanded of the Grand Duke and of the assembled Estates of the Grand Duchy freedom of the press, trial by jury, the right of the people to bear arms and to meet in public, and a popular legislative assembly for all Germany by the side of the Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main. On the 2d of March the Grand Duke yielded to all these demands, appointed a Ministry from the liberal party and adopted other conciliatory measures. Popular movements of a similar character took place in other parts of Germany. The Kings of Hanover, Saxony and Württemberg and the reigning princes of Hesse-Cassel and other German states granted to their subjects the concessions which they had demanded. In all these German states the often-persecuted leaders of the popular party were called to the Ministry and many beneficent reforms were introduced in a democratic spirit and with destructive haste. King Louis of Bavaria, after being forced to grant to his subjects the reforms which they had demanded, abdicated his throne in favor of the Crown Prince MAXIMILIAN, March 20, 1848. A change of the same nature occurred in Hesse-Darmstadt.

The two leading German states—Austria and Prussia—experienced the greatest convulsions in connection with the revolutionary movement which spread over Germany as a consequence of the Paris Revolution of February, 1848; and the capitals of these two great German monarchies—Vienna and Berlin—were the scenes of dreadful revolutions and street-fights about the middle of March, 1848, which ended in popular triumphs. The Vienna Revolution, which occurred on March 13th, will be described a little farther on; while the Berlin Revolution, which occurred on March 18th and 19th, will be noted in this connection.

Consequences
of the
Paris
February
Revolution.

Popular
Move-
ments in
Germany.

Vienna
and
Berlin
Revolu-
tions of
March,
1848.

The
Berlin
Revolution.

After long hesitation, the King of Prussia, on the 17th of March, 1848, granted freedom of the press and other reforms, also holding out a prospect of German unity under an imperial constitution. But these concessions did not restore tranquillity to the Prussian capital; and, as hostile encounters had occurred between the populace and the military for several days, the people of Berlin also demanded the withdrawal of the soldiers from the capital and the formation of a National Guard. Poles and other foreign agitators inflamed the popular excitement by inflammatory addresses. Crowds assembled in the streets in front of the royal palace and indulged in violent threats against the soldiery, March 18th; whereupon an infantry division marched out of the palace to drive back the rapidly-growing multitude. The firing of two shots by unknown parties was the signal for a terrible street-fight of fourteen hours. By the morning of the 19th most of the barricades erected by the people had been taken or destroyed by the heroism of the troops and by the destructive effects of grape-shot, though the struggle was yet undecided. Finally King Frederick William IV. ordered the troops to withdraw, dismissed the Ministry, consented to the formation of a militia for the capital and a guard for the palace and granted an unconditional amnesty. Three days later—March 21, 1848—during a solemn procession through Berlin, the Prussian king issued a proclamation promising to place himself at the head of a free and united Germany as a constitutional sovereign. A few weeks later a constituent National Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, undertook the task of framing a representative constitution for the Prussian kingdom.

Revolutionary
Outbreaks
in
Germany.

In the meantime all the German states were terribly convulsed. The German Federal Diet had an increase of liberal members, and seventeen trustworthy men were commissioned to frame a new constitution for the German nation. But the popular movement in Germany soon assumed such formidable proportions that reforms were no longer sufficient, and insurrection and revolution were entered upon in many portions of the Fatherland. In many localities the peasants drove away the stewards and destroyed the land and tithe registers and the seats of the landlords. The advocates of radical reform were not satisfied with the action of the German Parliament, which assembled by its own authority in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main in the beginning of April, 1848; laid down the principle of popular sovereignty; prepared the way for the convocation of a freely-elected German National Assembly which should be charged with the task of framing a constitution for a free and united Germany, and appointed a permanent committee of fifty to see that this resolution was carried out by the German Federal government. A German radical party, headed by Hecker, Struve and others, was striving for a German republic and instigated a republican insur-

Action
of the
German
Parliament.

Republican
Rising.

rection in Baden; but the republican movement was speedily crushed and the leaders were obliged to flee, after a few military expeditions in which the Federal general, Frederick von Gagern, lost his life.

On May 18, 1848, the German National Assembly, which was chosen to frame a constitution for the German nation, convened in the Church of St. Paul, in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main. This Assembly was distinguished by the talent and eloquence of many of its members and was truly representative of German opinion and German civilization. The Assembly immediately set aside the German Federal Diet and established a new central power. After some sharp parliamentary contests, in which the executive ability of the president of the Assembly, Henry von Gagern, determined the result, the Assembly resolved upon the choice of an irresponsible Regent, who was to surround himself with a responsible Ministry. On June 29, 1849, the National Assembly chose the Archduke John of Austria to the new dignity of Regent of Germany, and on July 11, 1849, he received from the hands of the president of the German Federal Diet the power exercised by that body.

**German
National
Assembly.**

**Archduke
John of
Austria,
Regent of
Germany.**

**Schles-
wig-
Hol-
stein's
Relations
with
Denmark.**

In the meantime a sanguinary national war was in progress in the German Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, whose native German inhabitants longed for political independence of the rule of the King of Denmark. Supported by a good old settlement, according to which Schleswig and Holstein were to be united and to descend as a heritage to the male line of the princely House of Oldenburg only, the sturdy German inhabitants of these two Duchies desired to be united to their German Fatherland politically under the legitimate and native Duke of Augustenburg, upon the impending extinction of the royal family of Denmark. Instigated by the strong Danish party, King Christian VIII. of Denmark had shattered this hope of the Schleswig-Holsteiners by the *Public Letter*, in which he announced the indissoluble union of Schleswig with Denmark and the undivided integrity of the Danish dominions, July 8, 1846.

When, in consequence of the Paris Revolution of February, 1848, a powerful movement was communicated to the other European states, the German Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein resolved to assert their independence of the rule of the King of Denmark and to assume their place in the German body-politic. Trusting to aid from their kinsmen in the German Fatherland, who had promised assistance in many addresses, the Schleswig-Holsteiners established a provisional government, March 26, 1848, to last until their legitimate position should be attained, their attitude being upheld by the central government of Germany, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, thus giving rise to a bloody war, the Danes taking the field against the revolted Duchies. The Germans interested themselves in the cause of the Schleswig-Holsteiners, who

**Schles-
wig-
Holstein's
Revolt
against
Denmark.**

were accordingly aided by Prussian and other German volunteers, among whom were many students and promising youths, who hazarded life and limb in the struggle; and the Federal German troops, under Prussia's leadership, drove the Danes from Schleswig. But the lack of a German fleet placed the revolted Duchies at a great disadvantage and gave the Danes the superiority. The threatening attitude assumed by Great Britain and Russia, in consequence of the distressing effect of this war upon the maritime trade of Northern Europe, induced Prussia to enter into diplomatic negotiations and to conclude the not-very-creditable Truce of Malmö with the King of Denmark, August 26, 1848, which was sanctioned by the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, thus suspending hostilities in that quarter for some time.

Repub-
lican
Rising at
Frank-
fort-on-
the-Main.

This disgraceful truce was seized upon by the German republican party as a pretext to disperse the German National Assembly in the Church of St. Paul, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, by means of a revolutionary rising which was to bring about the establishment of a German republic. This project was frustrated by calling in the German Federal troops; and, after a bloody street-fight, the insurrection was crushed; but two members of the National Assembly—Auerswald and Lichnowsky—were murdered by the enraged mob in the Bornheimer wood, September 18, 1848, thus showing the degree to which the passions of the irritated populace had already risen and the dissatisfaction with which the German republicans regarded the moderate course of the National Assembly.

Projected
German
Union
under
Prussia.

These proceedings and the violent struggles in Hungary and in other parts of the Austrian Empire convinced the majority of the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main that it would be best for Austria and the rest of Germany to construct separate political systems and then to establish a federal system uniting Austria and the rest of Germany with trade and customs legislation common to both, Prussia to be the head of the new German union. The project had its leading champion in the president of the German National Assembly, Henry von Gagern, who assumed the presidency of the Federal Ministry in order to carry out the scheme the more effectually; but the plan was strenuously opposed by various elements—by the Austrian delegates, because it excluded Austria from Germany; by the Catholics, because it assigned the leadership of Germany to Protestant Prussia; and by the republicans, because it placed an obstacle to their cherished hopes for a German republic in assigning the German leadership to a powerful hereditary monarchy and because they were irritated at the King of Prussia for dissolving the Prussian constituent National Assembly at Berlin.

King Frederick William IV. of Prussia had become disgusted with the fickle conduct of the democrats of Berlin, having frequently changed his Ministry in accordance with their wishes; having allowed perfect freedom of debate in the Prussian constituent National Assembly, where the democrats had a majority, and having relinquished the defense of his capital to the Prussian militia. For some time the Berlin populace had been kept in an excited state by native and foreign agitators, by public orators and by placards on the walls. Popular unions ruled the city, and noisy rioters constantly surrounded the Prussian constituent National Assembly and exercised an influence upon the debates and deliberations of that body by intimidation. The King of Prussia resolved to put an end to such proceedings, and the new Brandenburg-Manteuffel Ministry adjourned the Assembly and removed its next sitting to the town of Brandenburg. In defiance of the state of war with which Berlin was threatened, many of the members of the Assembly resolved to continue their sittings in that city, but were driven out by the troops; and when the Assembly declared the levying of taxes illegal it was dissolved. At the same time the Prussian government proclaimed a liberal constitution, which was to be submitted for ratification to a new elective Assembly with two Chambers.

Dissolution
of the
Prussian
National
Assembly.

Finally in March, 1849, in the midst of many contests, the German constituent National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main finished the task for which it had been convened—that of framing an imperial constitution for a united Germany, having established and promulgated the “fundamental right of the German people.” The Gagern party, which aimed at a German union, with an hereditary Emperor and a legislative Assembly with two branches, a government chamber and a popular house, had at last secured the adoption of their plan by a small majority, after they had gained the support of many republican members by accepting a democratic elective law with the universal right of suffrage. The new imperial constitution was finished by this compromise, while the transference of the hereditary dignity of Emperor to the King of Prussia was also adopted, March, 1849.

New
Imperial
Constitution
for
Germany.

A solemn deputation, headed by the German National Assembly's president, Simson, conveyed the Assembly's resolution to the King of Prussia and offered him the dignity of the Emperor of Germany, upon condition of his accepting the new imperial constitution in all its details. On April 3, 1849, King Frederick William IV. met the deputation in the great hall of his palace in Berlin, with the eyes of all Germany upon the proceeding. At first he gave an ambiguous answer, and finally he decisively rejected the new constitution and the imperial dignity. The disappointed deputies of the German National Assembly returned to Frankfort like scattered fugitives. When the

Its
Rejection
by the
King of
Prussia.

Prussian Assembly of Estates—which had again been summoned—voted an address to the throne, in which they recommended the acceptance of the constitution and the imperial dignity by the king as the desire of the German people, the first chamber was prorogued and the second dissolved; and the elective law was so changed that the right of universal suffrage was to give place to an election arranged upon the three tax-paying classes.

**Revolutionary
Risings in
Germany.**

The consequences of the Prussian king's rejection of the new imperial German constitution were fresh commotions in various parts of Germany. The democrats and republicans, who hitherto had been dissatisfied with the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, with the imperial constitution and with the "historical sentimentality" of an hereditary Emperor, now took advantage of the rejection by again appealing to arms; and formidable insurrections and bloody street-fights occurred, for the purpose of "carrying through the imperial constitution." Even in those German states that had opposed the introduction of the proposed constitution popular outbreaks took place, as in Saxony, in Rhenish Bavaria and in Rhenish Prussia. Other German states were soon involved in the revolutionary movement; and a mutiny broke out in the garrison of the fortress of Rastadt, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, where the government had acknowledged the new imperial constitution, which extended itself to Carlsruhe, thus compelling the Grand Duke of Baden to take flight, whereupon the control of public affairs in the Grand Duchy came into the hands of the democrats and republicans, thus giving the revolution great headway. In the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main the republican party was also gaining power by the opposition of the German governments to the work of the new constitution, particularly when many of the conservative and constitutional party voluntarily resigned their seats and others submitted to the summons of their respective state governments.

**Revolutionary
Risings
Crushed
by the
Prussian
Army.**

But the revolutionary movement in Germany was speedily suppressed by the Prussian army. Prussian troops crushed the popular risings in Elberfeld, Düsseldorf and many other places. At the call of the Saxon government, Prussian troops marched to Dresden; and, after a barricade street-fight of six days in the Saxon capital, wrested the city from the provisional government and restored the authority of the King of Saxony. Finally, when the Grand Duke of Baden called for assistance from Berlin, Prussian troops and militia marched into Baden and Rhenish Bavaria and crushed the revolution in those states just in time to prevent its extension to the Kingdom of Würtemberg. While these events were transpiring, the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main was gradually losing its conservative members, so that the

republican party was at last left supreme in that body. This republican majority resolved to preserve its power by a revolution, for which purpose these republican members removed their sittings from Frankfort-on-the-Main to Stuttgart, in Würtemberg, in order to be nearer the revolutionary center. The "Rump Parliament," having less than a hundred members, went over to Würtemberg, where they established an "imperial regency" of five members and gave prestige to the revolutionary movement, until the Minister, Römer, a firm and resolute man, put an end to their proceedings and forced them to leave the kingdom, June 18, 1849. At the same time Prussian troops marched through the Grand Duchy of Baden, defeated the revolted troops and the volunteers under the Polish adventurer Microlawski in several engagements and restored the Grand Duke's authority. Trütsch, a member of the German National Assembly, and other revolutionary leaders were shot, while others succeeded in saving themselves by fleeing into republican countries.

While the revolutionary movement was still in progress in the open field the King of Prussia issued a proclamation to his subjects, which was calculated to restore their confidence. He promised to satisfy the aspirations for German unity by establishing a union with a popular representation and thus settle the still-open question of a German imperial constitution. While Austria was engaged in her struggle with revolted Hungary, Prussia sought to unite all Germany except Austria in a new confederation under Prussian leadership, with a new imperial constitution on the basis of the one proposed by the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main—a proposal which was received with approval by all the moderate party, many of the members of the German National Assembly meeting in Gotha, in what was called "the after Parliament," thus contributing materially to the pacification of the disturbed German states. With the view of materializing the new union, Prussia concluded an alliance with Hanover and Saxony, May 26, 1849; and this "league of three kings" was afterward joined by some smaller German states and was called the *German Union*. Very soon, however, Hanover and Saxony, supported by Austria, withdrew from this Union. This German Union was soon revived, and a Parliament of this Union was convened at Erfurt, March 20, 1850; but neither Hanover nor Saxony sent any deputies to it, and after a few sittings it adjourned indefinitely, while Hanover retired from the new German Union.

**Prussia's
Proposed
German
Union.**

By the adoption of a constitution on February 6, 1850, Prussia became a constitutional monarchy, thus opening up a new era in the history of that hitherto-absolute kingdom and putting it in the line of progress ushered in by the new spirit of the age.

**Prussia's
Constitu-
tion.**

Renewal
of the
Schles-
wig-
Holstein
War.

In consequence of the distractions and dissensions in Germany in 1848 and 1849, hostilities were renewed in Schleswig-Holstein in March, 1849. On April 5, 1849, German troops sunk the Danish ship-of-the-line *Christian VIII.* by means of shore batteries and compelled the Danish frigate *Gefion* to surrender after the loss of her rudder. The triumphant Germans soon advanced on Frederica and laid siege to that frontier fortress. But the activity of the allied Prussian and other German troops was paralyzed by the peace negotiations opened with Denmark, thus enabling the Danes to reinforce the garrison of Frederica and subsequently to expel the German troops by an unexpected sally and to secure possession of the trenches and the artillery. A new armistice was concluded in July, 1849, in consequence of which Schleswig was placed under a neutral government and garrisoned with German and Swedish troops. In the following year, 1850, a treaty of peace was signed by which Schleswig-Holstein was to remain under the rule of the King of Denmark; but the lieutenancy which the German central power had established in the Duchies during the war would not accept the treaty; and this lieutenancy, after the retreat of the Prussian garrison, resolved to uphold its rights by its own strength and with the aid of the German nation.

Vienna
Revolu-
tion of
March,
1848.

The Paris Revolution of February, 1848, aroused the various races in the ill-compacted Austrian Empire—Germans, Italians, Slavonians and Hungarians. When the Diet of Lower Austria was opened at Vienna, on the 13th of March, 1848, a large concourse of people, headed by the students of the University, proceeded to the hall in which the Diet assembled and demanded a constitution, liberty of the press, a National Guard, trial by jury and religious liberty. The order for the people to disperse not being obeyed, the Archduke Albert ordered the troops to fire into the crowd. A great number were killed and wounded, and the exasperation of the excited populace obliged the Austrian Emperor to order the soldiers to withdraw. The arsenal was opened to the people by the city guards, who declared for the popular cause. The Ministry of Prince Metternich was overthrown, and in a few days the Emperor Ferdinand yielded to all the demands of the people; the venerable Prince Metternich, who had ruled the Austrian Empire for a third of a century, ever since the fall of Napoleon, seeking refuge in England. Lawlessness soon prevailed in the Austrian capital, and the result of the liberty of the press was a disgraceful daily literature, while the right of assembly was made use of to form tumultuous mobs and democratic clubs, the great number of idle workmen facilitating the plans of the revolutionary party, so that the activity of the democrats who flocked into Vienna from all points excited riots, insurrections and street-fights, which were of frequent occurrence. On the 18th of May,

1848, the Emperor and his court retired to Innsbruck, in the Tyrol; but, at the request of the people and of the Austrian Diet, which in the meantime had been chosen by universal suffrage and assembled, he returned to the capital in August, when the students and the democratic clubs ruled Vienna in the most arbitrary and despotic manner.

Just after the Vienna Revolution of March, 1848, a deputation from Hungary, headed by Louis Kossuth, appeared in Vienna and asked for the Hungarian kingdom the royal assent to a series of acts passed by the Hungarian Diet, providing for the annual meeting of that body, the union of Transylvania with Hungary, the organization of a Hungarian National Guard, equality of taxation for all classes, religious toleration, liberty of the press and a separate Ministry for Hungary. These acts were approved by the Emperor-king, who, on the 11th of April, 1848, personally confirmed them in the Hungarian Diet, convened at Pesth, the capital of Hungary. These concessions were hailed with joy by the Hungarians.

**The
Austrian
Emperor's
Conces-
sions to
Hungary.**

The Croats and the other Slavic races under the Hungarian government, jealous of the ascendancy of the Magyars and demanding their independence of Hungarian rule, took up arms against the Magyars. The Croats were encouraged in their rebellion by the Austrian government, and Austrian armies were sent to their assistance. The Servians, a Slavonic race, who had also revolted against the Hungarian government, laid waste the Magyar villages and committed the greatest atrocities on the defenseless population. The Hungarian war actually opened on the 12th of June, 1848, when the Magyars bombarded Carlowitz, the Servian metropolis. The Servians in the Ottoman territories hastened to the aid of their brethren in the Austrian dominions, and the Magyars were obliged to take refuge in the fortress of Peterwardcin. The whole Servian population in the Banat then rose against the Magyars, and hostilities between the contending races raged with great fury.

**Slavic
Revolt
against
Hungary.**

The Bohemians, a Slavic race, had applied to the Emperor of Austria for a constitution which would render their relations with the Austrian Empire the same as those of the Hungarians. Representatives from all the Slavic nations of the Empire assembled in a Congress at Prague, in June, 1848. During the session of that Congress the people of Prague demanded of Prince Windischgrätz the removal of the troops from the city and the furnishing of arms to the people; and when this demand was not complied with, the people rose in insurrection. After dreadful fighting in the streets of Prague for a whole week, during which the city was also bombarded from the neighboring heights, the city surrendered to Prince Windischgrätz on the 17th of June. The Slavic Congress was broken up and the insurrection was quelled.

**Slavic
Revolt in
Prague.**

**Siege and
Fall of
Prague.**

**Austria
Supports
the Slavs
against
Hungary.**

On the 29th of June, 1848, the Austrian imperial government at Vienna announced Austria's intention to openly support the Slavic races in their revolt against Magyar rule; and it soon appeared that Emperor Ferdinand, after the suppression of the rebellion against Austrian authority in Northern Italy, was resolved to deprive the Magyars of the privileges which he had recently granted to them. Convinced that the rights of Hungary must be defended by force of arms, the Hungarian Diet resolved to raise an army of two hundred thousand men.

**Austro-
Slavic
Invasion
of
Hungary.**

In the meantime a united Austrian and Croatian force, under the command of Jelachich, the Ban, or governor, of Croatia, had invaded Hungary and advanced toward Pesth; but the Magyars, aroused by the eloquent and patriotic appeals of Louis Kossuth, one of the ablest of their leaders, soon repulsed the invaders, compelled Jelachich to flee, and, on the 5th of October, 1848, captured the Croatian rear-guard, consisting of ten thousand men.

**Murder of
Lamberg
and
Latour
and
Vienna
Revolution
of
October,
1848.**

The Magyars were highly incensed at the course of the Austrian imperial government; and on the 3d of October, 1848, the imperial commissioner, Lamberg, was murdered by an enraged mob on the bridge of Buda-Pesth. The Austrian troops were immediately ordered to march into Hungary; but the democrats of Vienna, who were in sympathy with the Magyars, excited another revolution in the Austrian capital. Count Latour, Minister of War, was murdered by the excited mob; and the Ministry was overthrown, October 6, 1848. The Emperor of Austria fled to Olmütz, in Moravia; and at his command Prince Windischgrätz marched against the rebellious capital. After besieging Vienna for three weeks, the imperial army under Windischgrätz opened a furious assault on the city on the 29th of October; and, after a heroic defence, the city surrendered on the 31st. The conquered capital was placed under martial law; and several of the revolutionary leaders, among whom was Robert Blum, a member of the German National Assembly, were punished with death. The Austrian imperial government then adopted a conciliatory course.

**Emperor
Francis
Joseph of
Austria.**

Wearied of the contentions in the various parts of his dominions, the Austrian Emperor Ferdinand abdicated his throne, on the 2d of December, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew, FRANCIS JOSEPH. As the new Emperor did not take the requisite oath to support the constitution, laws and liberties of Hungary, the Magyars refused to acknowledge him as their sovereign.

**Hunga-
rian
Prepara-
tions.**

All the efforts of the Magyars for a peaceful settlement of difficulties were unsuccessful, as the Austrian imperial government was resolved upon depriving Hungary of her rights. The Magyars therefore made the most vigorous exertions for defense; manufactures of arms and

ammunition were established; the peasants of Hungary flew to arms, and the most intense enthusiasm was manifested.

In December, 1848, the Austrian army under Windischgrätz entered Hungary from the west; and on the 5th of January, 1849, Pesth fell into the hands of the Austrian and Croation forces under Windischgrätz and Jellachich. Kossuth and the Hungarian Ministry and Diet retired to Debreczin, in the south-eastern part of Hungary.

**Austrian
Invasion
of
Hungary.**

On the 30th of January, 1849, the Magyars lost the strong fortress of Essek, in Slavonia, which was surrendered to the imperialists with its garrison of five thousand men. About the same time General Bem, a Pole, who was at the head of an army of ten thousand Magyars, was driven from Transylvania; the Saxons and Wallachs, who inhabit that province, having joined the Austrians; but, the warlike Szecklers, of Southern Hungary, having risen in favor of the Magyars, Bem returned to Transylvania, defeated the Austrians and Russians who opposed him, took Kronstadt and Hermannstadt, and then passed into the Banat and captured Temesvar, its capital.

**Fall of
Essek.**

**Opera-
tions in
Transyl-
vania.**

At the beginning of February, 1849, Kossuth appointed General Dembinski, also a Pole, to the chief command of the Magyar forces. Dembinski concentrated the Hungarian armies in the upper part of the valley of the Theiss to meet the advancing Austrians under Windischgrätz. On the 26th and 27th of February, 1849, a bloody battle was fought between forty thousand Magyars and sixty thousand Austrians at Kapolna, where, in consequence of the inactivity of the Hungarian General Görgey, the imperialists were victorious.

**Hunga-
rian
Concen-
tration.**

**Battle of
Kapolna.**

The new Emperor, Francis Joseph, dissolved the Austrian constituent Diet at Kremsier; and on the 4th of March, 1849, he proclaimed a constitution for the Austrian Empire, by which Hungary was to be incorporated with Austria. The Austrian government also solicited the aid of Russia to crush the Hungarian rebellion. The Hungarian Diet at Debreczin, convinced of the impossibility of a reconciliation with Austria, took a decisive step, on the 14th of April, 1849, by declaring the independence of Hungary; and Louis Kossuth was appointed Governor of Hungary with almost absolute powers. On the 12th of May, 1849, the Emperor of Austria issued a proclamation to the Magyars, announcing the intervention of Russia and ordering them to lay down their arms.

**New
Imperial
Austrian
Constitu-
tion.**

**Gorgey's
Victories
over the
Austri-
ans.**

At length Görgey was entrusted with the chief command of the Hungarian armies, Dembinski having resigned that post a few days after the battle of Kapolna. After fourteen days of terrific hand-to-hand fighting, commencing with the battle of Szolnok on the 27th of March and ending with the capture of Waitzen by Görgey on the 9th of April, the Magyars recovered Pesth, relieved Komorn and utterly

Siege and
Capture
of Buda.

routed the imperialists. On the 17th of April the chief command of the Austrian armies was assigned to Baron Welden. On the 18th, April, 1849, Welden was defeated at Szoncz; and on the 19th the Austrian reserve under Wohlgemuth was annihilated at Nagy Sarlo. The Austrians were severely repulsed in several attempts to carry by storm the strong fortress of Komorn, and Welden was compelled to retreat toward Vienna. Instead of following up his successes by threatening the Austrian capital, as urged by Kossuth, Görgey laid siege to the strong fortress of Buda, opposite Pesth. Görgey carried Buda by storm on the 21st of May; but the siege involved a delay fatal to the cause of Hungary, and saved Vienna and probably the Austrian Empire. The imperial forces were now completely driven out of Hungary, and the first campaign in the great Austro-Hungarian War of 1848-'49 ended in the triumph of the Magyars.

Russia's
Aid to
Austria.

In response to Austria's application for Russian assistance in subduing the Magyar insurgents, the Czar Nicholas sent an army of one hundred and sixty thousand men, under the command of Prince Paskiewitsch, to invade Hungary on the north-east. As the same time the Austrians were preparing to reënter Hungary on the west; and by the 1st of June, 1849, four hundred thousand hostile troops were on the Hungarian frontiers. On the 30th of May the brutal Baron Haynau was invested with the chief command of the Austrian armies. At about the same time, early in June, Haynau with fifty thousand Austrians entered Hungary at Pressburg; Paskiewitsch with ninety thousand Russians crossed the Gallician frontiers and invaded Hungary on the north-east; an Austro-Russian army of fifty-five thousand men entered Transylvania, and Jellachich with his Croats advanced into the Magyar territory from the south.

Austro-
Russian
Invasion
of
Hungary.

Russian
Successes
and
Retreat
of Bem
and Dem-
binski.

Now opened the second campaign in the Hungarian war—the campaign which resulted in the subjugation of the Hungarian insurgents. After a gallant resistance, Bem was driven from Transylvania by the overwhelming forces of the Russians. Paskiewitsch, with the main Russian army, entered Debreczin on the 7th of July and Pesth on the 11th, and compelled Dembinski to retreat southward into the Banat. Jellachich, after suffering a severe defeat near Hegyes, marched up the Theiss with his Croats to form a junction with the Austrians under Haynau.

Battle of
Komorn
and
Görgey's
Retreat.

Haynau, who in the meantime had advanced from Pressburg with the main Austrian army, was defeated by Görgey near Komorn, on the 11th of July, 1849. From Komorn Görgey retreated eastward to Tokay, and thence southward to Arad, which place he reached on the 8th of August. On the 19th of July, 1849, Haynau entered Pesth, and then went in pursuit of Görgey. The cruelties of Haynau dur-

ing his whole career in Hungary reflected disgrace upon his memory and acquired for him the well-merited title of "Hungary's Hangman."

While Haynau was marching southward in pursuit of the retreating Görgey, an event occurred far in his rear which created serious alarm among the Austrians. On the 3d of August, 1849, the garrison of Komorn, under General Klapka, made a grand sortie from the fortress, utterly routed the Austrians in that vicinity and opened the road to Vienna. On the 8th, August, 1849, after four days' fighting with the Austrians, Dembinski was severely wounded; whereupon the command of his army devolved on Bem, who, on the following day, August 9, 1849, engaged the Austrian and Croatian forces under Haynau and Jellachich at Temesvar, where, after a sanguinary conflict, in which Bem was covered with wounds, the army which he commanded was thoroughly annihilated; Görgey, although within a short distance of the place where he was fighting, having neglected to come to his assistance.

The disasters to the Hungarian arms were in a great measure owing to the dissensions and want of concert among the Polish and Magyar generals; and Görgey, with whom the gratification of personal ambition was a primary consideration, was striving for absolute power. At the request of Görgey and at the solicitation of his friends, Kossuth, on the 10th of August, 1849, dissolved the provisional government and appointed the ambitious general dictator. Görgey had long been suspected of treachery to the cause of Hungary, and he had repeatedly disobeyed the orders of the provisional government. It now appeared that for some time he had been engaged in a treasonable correspondence with the enemies of his country, and he immediately made use of his absolute power to ruin the cause of Hungarian independence. On the 13th of August, 1849, Görgey surrendered, without any conditions, his entire army of thirty-five thousand men to the Russian General Rudiger, at Villagos.

The treacherous surrender of Görgey paralyzed all the efforts of the Magyars; the various Hungarian detachments laid down their arms, and Hungary lay powerless before the despotic power of Austria. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski and many others of the patriot leaders fled into the Ottoman dominions; and the Sultan of Turkey nobly refused to deliver them up at the demands of the Austrian government. Bem received a command in the Turkish army. In 1850 Kossuth left Turkey and visited England and the United States, in which countries his noble efforts in the cause of Hungarian freedom excited universal sympathy.

On the 29th of September, 1849, Komorn surrendered to the Austrians on favorable conditions; and, with the fall of that important fortress, all military opposition to Austrian power in Hungary ceased.

**Klapka's
Grand
Sortie
from
Komorn.**

**Battle of
Temes-
var.**

**Görgey
Made
Dictator
of
Hungary**

**His
Treach-
erous
Surren-
der at
Villagos.**

**Submis-
sion of
Hungary.**

**Flight of
Hunga-
rian
Leaders.**

**Surren-
der of
Komorn.**

**Execution of
Hungarian
Leaders.**

To the everlasting infamy of the Austrian government, thirteen Hungarian generals and staff-officers were executed at Arad, on the 6th of October, 1849. Many of the Hungarian civil leaders met the same fate. A large number of the inferior officers were imprisoned in fortresses, some for a term of years and others for life; and no less than seventy thousand Hungarians who had engaged in the rebellion were compelled to serve in the Austrian army.

**Popular
Insurrections in
Austrian
Italy.**

For several years there had been much political agitation in those portions of Italy subject to Austria—namely, Lombardy and Venetia. The Paris Revolution of February, 1848, aroused the Italians, and finally the Vienna Revolution of March precipitated the climax in Austrian Italy. On the 18th of March, 1848—the day of the Revolution in Berlin—the people of Milan, on receiving intelligence of the March Revolution of Vienna, flocked to the government-house and demanded the release of all political prisoners and the formation of a National Guard. The Austrian troops fired; whereupon the mob raised the cry of “Evviva Italia!” and, rushing forward, overpowered the guard. A discharge of musketry on the people by the military occasioned a general rising; and, after a barricade street-fight of five days, the Austrian troops were driven from the city. At the same time popular risings occurred at Parma and Pavia, which resulted in the expulsion of the Austrian garrisons from those places; and all Lombardy and Venetia was in open rebellion against the Austrian power.

**Austro-
Sardinian
War.**

On the 23d of March, 1848, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, issued a proclamation in favor of Italian nationality and of war against Austria, and marched with an army into Lombardy to assist the insurgents there to drive out the Austrians; being supported in his first moments of enthusiasm and surprise by multitudes of Italian volunteers, thus enabling him to force back the Austrians to the northern Italian frontier. The delays of Charles Albert gave the Austrian Field-Marshal Radetzky time to concentrate his forces and to receive reinforcements. The Sardinian king gained victories over the Austrians at Peschiera and Goito and captured Rivoli; but, while he was employed in the siege of Mantua, the Austrians under Radetzky defeated the Sardinians at La Corona, after a desperate conflict. After defeating the King of Sardinia in a bloody battle at Custoza on the 25th of July and in another at Bussolongo on the 26th, Field-Marshal Radetzky soon reconquered Milan and reduced the whole of Lombardy to submission. King Charles Albert concluded an armistice with the Austrians and then retired into his own dominions.

**Austrian
Victories.****Armistice.****Sicily's
Revolt
against
Naples.**

The Sicilians were still engaged in their bloody struggle for independence against the King of Naples, begun in January, 1848; and, as we have seen, Ferdinand V. had granted a liberal constitution to the



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THE ANCIENT TIBER AND ITS ISLAND

people of Naples. In consequence of Ferdinand's violation of his liberal promises, an insurrection broke out in the city of Naples, in May, 1848; and the king gave up his capital to be plundered and sacked by the lazzaroni, who brutally massacred many of the inhabitants. Ferdinand vigorously prosecuted the war against the revolted Sicilians by means of his mercenary Swiss troops. Messina surrendered to the Neapolitans after a fierce bombardment of two days; the Sicilians were defeated in a furious battle at Catania; and Palermo yielded to the arms of the Neapolitans after a short resistance. With the fall of Palermo, King Ferdinand V. of Naples recovered his authority throughout Sicily; after which he overthrew by violence the constitution in Naples, which he had granted in a moment of necessity.

The liberal movement soon became too powerful in Rome for the weak Pontiff to control. The Roman people at length outstripped Pius IX. in the matter of reform, and the promise of the Pope to grant a constitutional government to the Pontifical States and his summoning of a National Assembly did not satisfy his subjects. The appointment of Count Rossi, an avowed antagonist of the liberal movement, to the head of the Ministry excited the indignation of the Roman people, who thus became convinced that a reaction had taken place in the mind of the Pope. On the 15th of November, 1848, Rossi was assassinated on the steps of the Assembly House. A popular rising ensued. A mob proceeded to the Pope's palace, and, after a short conflict with the papal guards, forced the Pope to appoint a popular Ministry. On the 23d of November, 1848, the Pope fled from Rome and retired to Gaëta, in the Kingdom of Naples. On the 9th of February, 1849, a popularly-chosen National Assembly declared the Pope's temporal power at an end and that the form of government for the Roman States should be a pure democracy with the title of the *Roman Republic*. A Triumvirate was chosen to exercise executive duties; and at the head of the new government was the able, energetic and eloquent Joseph Mazzini, the enterprising head of the party of *Young Italy*. The commander of the volunteers was the ardent republican, Joseph Garibaldi.

Urged by the Italian republicans, King Charles Albert of Sardinia declared his armistice with Austria at an end on the 20th of March, 1849; and on the same day his kingdom was invaded by the Austrian army under Field-Marshal Radetzky. After a spirited campaign of four days on the Ticino and near Novara, Sardinia lay prostrate before the power of Austria; and on the evening of the 23d, March, 1849, Charles Albert abdicated the throne of Sardinia in favor of his son, VICTOR EMMANUEL II., and immediately retired to Portugal, where he died of a broken heart shortly afterward. On the 25th of March,

Revolution in Rome and Flight of Pope Pius IX.

New Roman Republic.

Renewal of the Austro-Sardinian War.

Austrian Victories.

Charles Albert's Abdication.

1849, Victor Emmanuel II. concluded a treaty of peace with Austria, by which Sardinia was required to pay fifteen millions of dollars as indemnity for the expenses of Austria in the war.

Siege and
Capture
of Rome
by a
French
Army.

After waiting anxiously several months for the Roman people to recall him, Pope Pius IX. appealed to the Roman Catholic powers for assistance to restore his temporal power. In response to this appeal, Republican France sent an army of four thousand men under General Oudinot against Rome. The Roman republicans made earnest preparations for defense. The Roman National Assembly declared itself permanent, and Mazzini made fiery addresses to the people. When the French troops arrived before Rome, on the 30th of April, 1849, they found the Roman volunteers under General Garibaldi ready to make a determined resistance. The first attack of the French was repulsed, and the Eternal City held out heroically until its resources were exhausted; and, after withstanding many furious assaults and a regular bombardment, Rome surrendered to the besieging French on the 3d of July, 1849. General Garibaldi and the popular leaders escaped to England and the United States, and the Pope was restored to his former power under the protection of foreign bayonets. Thenceforth Pope Pius IX. was a most zealous friend of absolutism and a bitter antagonist to all liberal movements.

Siege and
Capture
of Venice
by an
Austrian
Army.

While victory shone upon the Austrian arms in Lombardy and Piedmont an Austrian army was engaged in the siege of Venice, which, in March, 1848, had revolted against Austrian rule and proclaimed the *Republic of St. Mark*. Under the able republican leader, Manini, Venice maintained its independence for nearly a year and a half. After a siege of many months, during which much property had been destroyed and all her provisions had been exhausted, Venice surrendered to Field-Marshal Radetzky, on the 25th of August, 1849; and, with the fall of that gallant city, the authority of Austria was reëstablished throughout Lombardy and Venetia. The Grand Duke of Tuscany had been driven from his dominions by a popular insurrection, which established a republican government, which lasted only a few weeks.

Austro-
Prussian
Rivalry.

Frederick William IV. of Prussia made another effort to form a German league under Prussia's leadership by convening a Congress of the German princes at Berlin, May 10, 1850. Austria, alarmed for her own supremacy in Germany, assembled the Diet of the old German Confederation at Frankfort-on-the-Main, May 10, 1850, the very day when the Congress under Prussia's leadership convened at Berlin. All the German states except Prussia and Oldenburg were represented in this meeting of the old German Federal Diet.

Thus two rival German assemblies were in session at the same time—one at Berlin to form a new German confederation under Prussian

leadership, and another at Frankfort-on-the-Main to maintain the old one under Austrian supremacy. Thus Germany was divided into two hostile parties; and a civil war was almost caused by the action of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel in outraging the constitution which he had granted by proceeding to levy taxes without the consent of the Chambers of his state, thus causing a revolt of his subjects, who drove him from his dominions. The Elector appealed to the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and that body resolved to support him. Accordingly an Austrian and Bavarian force marched into Hesse-Cassel to restore the Elector's authority, but Prussia supported the Elector's revolted subjects and occupied Cassel and Fulda with her own troops. Austria demanded the withdrawal of the Prussian troops from Hesse-Cassel, but Prussia refused compliance with Austria's demand, and both parties prepared for war.

Threatened Austro-Prussian Collision about Hesse-Cassel.

Thus a collision between the two great German powers seemed inevitable, and it appeared that the question whether Austria or Prussia should hold the ascendancy in Germany would then be decided by an appeal to arms; but Russian mediation and a change of Ministry at Berlin averted hostilities. Austria and Prussia were induced to consent to a free conference of all the German princes to arrange the constitution of Germany, while Austria and Prussia were to settle the affairs of Hesse-Cassel and of Schleswig-Holstein between them. The "free conference" of the German princes at Dresden, in December, 1850, accomplished nothing; but Prussia was induced to acknowledge the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the Main, as a measure of peace; and by the settlement of June 12, 1851, the old Germanic Confederation was restored as it had existed from 1815 to 1848, thus ending three years of revolution and disturbance in Germany.

Settlement of the Austro-Prussian Rupture.

A Congress of plenipotentiaries of the Great European Powers at London, in 1852, settled the whole of the Danish inheritance, including the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, upon Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, who had married a princess of Hesse; but neither Germany nor the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein accepted this arrangement, and the question was left unsettled—the germ of future wars.

London Congress and the Danish Inheritance.

SECTION X.—LOUIS NAPOLEON AS PRESIDENT AND EMPEROR (A. D. 1848–1852).

UPON assuming the office of President of the French Republic, Louis Napoleon publicly avowed the principles of his government to be strictly republican. The different parties in the French National Assembly were the Legitimists, or adherents of the elder branch of the

Parties in the French National Assembly.

Bourbons; the Orleanists, who desired the placing of the heir of Louis Philippe upon the throne of France; the Bonapartists, or Imperialists, who desired the restoration of the French Empire; the Red Republicans; and the Moderate Republicans, or friends of the existing constitution.

**Collision
between
President
Louis
Napoleon
and the
National
Assembly.**

From the beginning there was a lack of harmony between the executive and legislative branches of the government, the National Assembly having no faith in the republican professions of the President. The Assembly restricted the right of suffrage and the freedom of the press, and in many other ways encroached upon the rights of the French people. As already noticed, in 1849 a French army under General Oudinot was sent to Rome to overthrow the Republic which had been established there. The French constitution of 1848 provided for its revision by the National Assembly during the last year of the Presidential term, and it also made the President ineligible to reelection before an interval of four years. Louis Napoleon desired to have it revised and so altered as to render him eligible to reelection; but the Assembly, by a large vote, in 1851, refused to revise it. The President, in his message in November, 1851, advised the Assembly to extend the right of suffrage; but the Assembly rejected a proposition for that purpose. Soon afterward a proposition was offered threatening the President with impeachment if he should seek a reelection contrary to the provisions of the constitution.

**Louis
Napoleon's
Coup
d'Etat.**

The breach between the President and the National Assembly was rapidly widening, and finally Louis Napoleon determined to crush at one blow all opposition to his will by a bold stroke of state policy. About five o'clock in the morning of the 2d of December, 1851, the principal streets of Paris were occupied by troops, who were massed between the Elysée and the Tuileries; and the leading members of the Assembly and the chief military leaders, whom Louis Napoleon knew were opposed to his ambitious schemes, were siezed in their beds and shut up in prison. M. Thiers and Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier and Lamoriciere and other prominent characters were arrested by detachments of police, assisted by the guards, and were imprisoned in the chateau of Vincennes. At the dawn of day the Parisians were surprised to find the walls everywhere covered with placards containing the following decree: "In the name of the French people, the President of the Republic decrees: 1. The National Assembly is dissolved. 2. Universal suffrage is re-established; the law of 31st of May is repealed. 3. The French people are convoked in their communes from the 14th to the 31st of December. 4. The state of siege is decreed in the whole of the first military division. 5. The Council of State is dissolved. The Minister of the Interior is charged with the execution of this decree. Louis Napoleon Bona-

parte." During the day some of the members of the National Assembly met at the residence of M. Daru, declared the President guilty of treason and decreed his deposition; but no sooner had they signed the decree than they were seized by the military and conducted to prison. None of the journals but those that supported the President were permitted to be printed and distributed. This bold act of usurpation, dignified by the title of the *Coup d'Etat*, was completely successful. The republican constitution was overthrown, and Louis Napoleon was a monarch in all but in name.

On the 2d of December no resistance was made to the President's usurpation; but about ten o'clock on the morning of the 3d M. Baudin, a representative of the people, appeared at the head of a mob in the Rue St. Antoine. The arrival of the military restored order, and M. Baudin and two other representatives were punished with death. On the following day, December 4, 1851, barricades were erected in many of the streets of Paris; but forty-eight thousand troops were brought to the city, and at noon they swept the Boulevards, fired upon the buildings, killed many innocent people, and put an end to all resistance before night. The troops gave no quarter to the insurgents, and more than two thousand persons were massacred by the troops in the streets and prisons; and twenty-six thousand persons were banished to French Guiana and Algeria. Victor Hugo and General Changarnier were afterward permanently banished. In the eastern departments of France the rural population rose in great strength against the usurpation; but, the army remaining faithful to the President, the insurrection was suppressed in a few days.

On Saturday and Sunday, December 20 and 21, 1851, elections were held throughout France; the question submitted to the nation being whether or not Louis Napoleon should hold the office of President ten years longer, with the power of forming a new constitution for France on the basis of universal suffrage. No other candidate was allowed to be named. The army voted first; and, as was to be expected, its vote was nearly unanimous in favor of Louis Napoleon. The entire majority in favor of the lengthened Presidential term was six million seven hundred and sixty-one thousand six hundred and fifty-nine votes. On New Year's Day, 1852, the result of the election was celebrated in the French capital with all possible magnificence. Seventy rounds of artillery were fired at the Invalides at ten o'clock in the forenoon; the *Te Deum* was sung at noon in the Cathedral of Notre Dame, the President himself being present; and a splendid banquet was given at the Tuileries in the evening, at which four hundred persons participated.

On the 14th of January, 1852, the new constitution proposed by Louis Napoleon was decreed. The constitution entrusted the execu-

Unsuccessful
Resistance to
His Usurpation.

Louis
Napoleon
Elected
President
for Ten
Years.

New
French
Constitution.

tive authority to Louis Napoleon for ten years and clothed him with almost absolute power. The legislative power was vested in a *Senate*, composed of the most gifted men in France; a *Council of State*, to originate and enact laws; and a *Corps Legislatif*, chosen by universal suffrage, to discuss and enact laws.

Napoleon
III.,
Emperor
of the
French.

The great end of all Louis Napoleon's ambition was the restoration of the French Empire. By means of newspaper agents and a mercenary press the President prepared the masses of the French people to pronounce at the ballot-box in favor of the reëstablishment of the imperial throne. After a tour through France—during which he was greeted everywhere with shouts of “Vive l'Empereur!”—he caused the French people to vote for the restoration of the French Empire. The election resulted in a majority of seven million six hundred and eleven thousand and thirty-five votes in favor of imperialism; and on December 2, 1852—exactly one year after the *Coup d'Etat*—Louis Napoleon became “*Napoleon III., by the grace of God, and by the will of the people, Emperor of the French.*” Thus ended the Second French Republic; and thus was established the *Second French Empire*, under Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Louis Bonaparte and his wife, Hortense Beauharnais. A large number of persons who had actively opposed Louis Napoleon's assumption of imperial power were arrested on the charge of treason, and imprisoned, or banished to Algeria or Cayenne.

His
Marriage
with
Eugenie
de
Montijo.

The new Emperor's next movement was the consummation of a marriage for the perpetuation of his dynasty; and, as all his proposals to foreign courts for the negotiation of a match were rejected, he selected for his bride Eugenie de Montijo, Countess of Teba, a Spanish lady who was not related to any reigning family. On the 2d of January, 1853, the announcement of the approaching nuptials was made to the French Senate. On the 29th of the same month the civil marriage was celebrated at the Tuileries, and on the 30th the religious ceremonies were celebrated with great pomp in the Cathedral of Notre Dame.

His
Reign,
A. D.
1852-
1870.

For eighteen years, 1852–1870, Napoleon III. was the most prominent figure in European politics; and he sought to secure his dynasty by gratifying the desire of the French people for military glory, although he had declared in a speech at Bordeaux early in 1853: “*L'Empire c'est la paix*”—“The Empire is Peace.” Napoleon III. greatly enlarged and beautified Paris, and France enjoyed material prosperity during his reign of eighteen years.



BATTLE OF THE ALMA, SEPTEMBER 20, 1854
From the Painting by I. Pils (Versailles Gallery)

CHAPTER XLII.

EUROPE TO 1908.

SECTION I.—THE CRIMEAN WAR (A. D. 1853–1856).

THE balance of power established by the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, was disturbed for the first time by a war between Russia and Turkey, begun in the fall of 1853, through the interference of the Czar Nicholas in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had been disturbed for several years by domestic insurrection. A revolt had broken out in Montenegro in 1852, and the insurgents offered a valiant resistance to the Ottoman armies. The councils of Sultan Abdul Medjid had for many years been controlled by British influence, which was represented at Constantinople by Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, formerly Sir Stratford Canning, whom the Czar Nicholas spitefully called "the English Sultan."

Russia
and
Turkey.

Lord
Strat-
ford
de Red-
cliffe.

The Turks had a prophecy that their dominion in Europe would last four hundred years from its establishment. Early in 1853—the year when the Turkish Empire in Europe was prophesied to end—the Czar Nicholas made secret proposals to Great Britain to unite with him in a partition of the spoils of the "Sick Man of Europe." Great Britain rejected the Czar's overtures, and entered into a close alliance with the other Great Powers, especially with France under the Emperor Napoleon III., who, in his desire to gratify his army by a foreign war, sustained Great Britain in her policy on the Eastern question.

Relations
of Russia
and Great
Britain.

For a long time a dispute with regard to the Holy Places at Jerusalem had raged at Constantinople between the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches, Russia supporting the claims of the Greek, and France those of the Roman Catholic Church. After mustering a large fleet and army at Sevastopol, the Czar Nicholas sent Prince Menschikoff to Constantinople with a preemptory message demanding for the Czar the control of the Holy Places at Jerusalem and the protectorate over the Sultan's Greek Christian subjects. This insolent demand was regarded as incompatible with the dignity of the Sultan as an independent sovereign; and, by the advice of the British and French ambassadors at

Guardian-
ship of
the Holy
Places.

Demand
of the
Czar
Nicholas
I.

Constantinople, the demands of the Czar were rejected and his extravagant pretensions denied; but the Sultan, by a *hatti sheriff*, confirmed all the privileges of his Christian subjects.

The Emperor of Russia had been actuated in his policy by his resentment toward Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, whose ascendancy at Constantinople was constantly thwarting the movements of the Russian ambassadors. The British ambassador's firmness and his power to summon the British fleet from Malta contributed vastly to allay a panic at the Turkish capital and encouraged the Ottoman Porte to resist the insolent demands of the Emperor Nicholas.

Immediately after the demand of the Russian Autocrat had been rejected by the Ottoman Porte, sixty thousand Russian troops invaded the Turkish principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Sultan demanded the evacuation of his dominions, threatening a declaration of war in case of a refusal. The fleets of France and Great Britain were ordered to the Dardanelles; while Great Britain, France, Austria and Prussia endeavored to bring about an adjustment of the dispute by negotiation. The arrogance of Russia prevented a solution of the difficulty; and, on October 5, 1853, the Turkish government declared war against Russia. On October 14, 1853, the fleets of Great Britain and France passed the Dardanelles, at the Sultan's request, to be ready for eventualities.

In the latter part of October, 1853, the Turkish forces crossed the Danube for the purpose of expelling the Russians from Moldavia and Wallachia. Under the command of their general, Omar Pasha, the Turks defeated the Russians at Oltenitza. On the 13th of November, 1853, the Turkish fleet at Sinôpé, on the southern coast of the Black Sea, was suddenly and unexpectedly attacked and destroyed by the Russian fleet. The town was also bombarded by the Russian fleet, and four thousand Turks were slain. Before the close of the year the British and French fleets were ordered into the Black Sea to protect the Turks.

The war extended to the Caucasus region, where the Circassian warrior-prophet Schamyl, having received arms and instructions from the Turks in November, 1853, issued from his mountain fastnesses and defeated thirty thousand Russians under Prince Woronzoff in a bloody battle, compelling them to retreat to Tiflis. The Circassians under Naib Mehemet Emir attacked and defeated a Russian army of twenty thousand men between Tiflis and Dariel, routing them with heavy loss.

In January, 1854, the Russians were repulsed in a four days' assault upon the Turkish lines at Kalafat and were compelled to retreat. Silistria and the other Turkish fortresses along the Danube were also besieged by the Russians.

Lord
Strat-
ford de
Red-
cliffe's
Firm-
ness.

Russian
Invasion
of
Turkey.

Russo-
Turkish
War of
1853.

Battle of
Oltenitza.

Naval
Battle of
Sinope.

Russo-
Circas-
sian War.

Siege of
Turkish
For-
tresses.

The Czar Nicholas still rejected all proposals for an amicable settlement of the dispute. He even refused to answer a note addressed to him by the British and French governments demanding the evacuation of the Turkish principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, threatening war in case of his rejection of the demand or his refusal to answer it. As all hopes of peace were thus dispelled, Great Britain and France, closely in alliance with Turkey, declared war against Russia, at the close of March, 1854; but Austria and Prussia remained neutral. The Czar of Russia issued a counter-declaration of war, April 11, 1854.

An allied British and French army of ninety thousand men, under Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, was sent to the assistance of the Turks; and a powerful Anglo-French naval armament, under Sir Charles Napier, was dispatched to the Baltic sea. The Russians, under Prince Gortschakoff, their commander-in-chief, crossed the Danube; the Ottoman forces retreating in good order before the invaders.

On the 22d of April, 1854, the allied British and French fleets bombarded the Russian commercial town of Odessa, on the Black Sea; and on the 16th of August, 1854, the Anglo-French fleet under Sir Charles Napier in the Baltic captured Bomarsund, in the Aland Isles, by assault. During the summer the Turks under Mussa Pasha successfully defended Silistria against ninety thousand Russians under Prince Paskiewitsch, finally compelling them to raise the siege, and, after defeating them at Giurgevo, forced them to evacuate the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia.

Although the special cause of the war was thus removed, Great Britain and France determined to maintain the contest until the Emperor of Russia should be deprived of the means for future aggressions by the destruction of the forts which guarded the harbor and the immense magazines of Sevastopol.

In September, 1854, an expedition composed of British, French and Turkish troops landed at Eupatoria, in the peninsula of the Crimea, and, on the 20th of that month, gained a brilliant victory over the Russians under Prince Menschikoff at Alma. A few days afterward Marshal St. Arnaud died, and the command of the French army was assigned to General Canrobert. The siege of Sevastopol commenced on the 17th of October, 1854, when the allies opened their first bombardment on the town, which was gallantly defended by the Russian garrison under Colonel Todleben for nearly a year.

The Russians sent large reinforcements to their army in the Crimea for the purpose of compelling the allies to evacuate the peninsula. On the 25th of October, 1854, occurred the famous battle of Balaklava, in which the English Light Cavalry Brigade was almost totally destroyed in a reckless charge upon the strong Russian position. This

**Alliance
of Great
Britain,
France
and
Turkey.**

**Allied
Expedi-
tions.**

**Russian
Advance.**

**Attack on
Odessa.**

**Fall of
Bomar-
sund.**

**Defense of
Silistria.**

**Anglo-
French
Attitude.**

**Allies
in the
Crimea**

**Battle of
Alma.**

**Siege of
Sevas-
topol.**

**Battle of
Bala-
klava.**

**Charge
of the
Light
Brigade.**

memorable charge was made by the Earl of Cardigan, in obedience to a mistaken order, down a long valley swept from both sides and from one end by the Russian cannon.

“Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon in front of them
Volleyed and thundered.
Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well;
Into the jaws of death,
Into the mouth of hell
Rode the six hundred.

* * * * *

“When can their glory fade?
Oh, the wild charge they made!
All the world wondered.
Honor the charge they made!
Honor the Light Brigade,
Noble six hundred!”

**Battle of
Inker-
mann.**

Large bodies of Russian troops continued to pour into the Crimea for the purpose of relieving the beleaguered fortress of Sevastopol; and on the 5th of November, 1854, was fought the bloody battle of Inker-mann, in which eight thousand British troops held their ground firmly against fifty thousand Russians under Prince Menschikoff for seven hours, when the appearance of a French force of six thousand men under General Bosquet soon decided the battle against the Russians, who were driven with heavy loss into the fortress of Sevastopol.

**Hard-
ships
of the
British
Army
in the
Crimea.**

The allied armies suffered more from disease than from the casualties of battle; and the hardships of the British troops were aggravated by the mismanagement of their commissariat, which left brave soldiers dying from hunger, sickness and cold within a few miles of abundant supplies of clothing, medicines and stores. This sad condition of the British army produced such popular indignation in England that on motion of Mr. Roebuck the House of Commons passed a resolution of inquiry by a majority of one hundred and fifty-seven; whereupon Lord Aberdeen and his colleagues resigned, January 29, 1855. After some delay a new Coalition Administration under Lord Palmerston was formed; but a slight difficulty in regard to the committee of investigation into the affairs of the British army in the Crimea soon led to the resignation of the Peelite Tories, thus leaving Lord Palmerston at liberty to form a purely Whig Cabinet.

**Miss
Florence
Night-
ingale.**

The dreadful sufferings of the British soldiers in the Crimea were alleviated through the merciful ministrations of Miss Florence Nightingale, who headed a band of volunteer nurses from England, thus win-

ning for herself a fame which has passed her name into history with those who have devoted themselves to the cause of humanity.

On the 2d of March, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his son ALEXANDER II., who declared his resolution of adhering to the policy of his father. A conference composed of representatives of Great Britain, France, Turkey and Russia was held at Vienna, in the spring of 1855, for the purpose of bringing about a restoration of peace; but, as Russia rejected the demand of the allied powers that the war-vessels of all nations should be excluded from the Black Sea, the efforts for peace failed; and Sardinia joined the allied powers in their war against Russia and sent fifteen thousand troops to join the allied army in the Crimea.

The British plenipotentiary at Vienna, Lord John Russell, had offered such humiliating sacrifices for the sake of peace that popular indignation in England forced him to retire from Lord Palmerston's Ministry.

The Empress Eugenie gave birth to a son, March 14, 1855—an event hailed throughout France with most extravagant demonstrations of joy. An attempt on the Emperor's life was made as he was riding near the Barrier de l'Etoile, in Paris, April 28, 1855.

During the spring of 1855 the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie visited Queen Victoria in England, and during the summer of the same year the British queen returned the compliment by visiting the Emperor of the French at Paris. During that year the second World's Fair, or International Exposition, was held at Paris.

In the meantime hostilities were prosecuted with vigor in the Crimean peninsula. On the 17th of February, 1855, the Russians assaulted the intrenched camp of the Turks at Eupatoria, but were repulsed after a fierce engagement. A severe battle between the Russians and the French occurred on the 22d of March, 1855, in which the Russians lost over two thousand men and the French six hundred men. The second bombardment of Sevastopol commenced on the 9th of April and continued for several days. The incompetent Canrobert was superseded in the command of the French forces by the able and energetic General Pelissier. The third bombardment of Sevastopol, which commenced on the 6th of June, resulted in giving the French possession of the Mamelon, while the British captured the Round Tower. On the 18th of June—the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo—the French assailed the Malakoff Tower, while at the same time the British stormed the Redan. Both attacks were repulsed. On the 28th, June, 1855, Lord Raglan died and was succeeded in the command of the British forces by General Simpson. On the 16th of August sixty thousand Russians were repulsed in an assault upon the French and the Sardinians at

Death of
the Czar
Nicholas
I.

Alex-
ander II.,
A. D.
1855—
1881.

Peace
Confer-
ence.

Sardinia
Joins the
Allies.

Russell's
Retire-
ment.

French
Prince
Imperial.

Visits of
Victoria
and
Napoleon
III.

Opera-
tions
in the
Crimea.

Siege of
Sevas-
topol.

Tchernaya. In the meantime a British fleet had entered the Sea of Azov, captured Kertch and Yenikale and destroyed vast quantities of stores and provisions.

Attack on Sweaborg. While the events just related were occurring in the Crimean peninsula hostilities were being prosecuted in other quarters. On the 9th of August, 1855, the combined British and French fleet in the Baltic, under Sir Charles Napier, commenced an attack upon Sweaborg, which was continued until the 11th, without effecting any important result.

Fall of Sevastopol. On the 5th of September, 1855, commenced the fourth bombardment of Sevastopol. On the 8th the French captured the Malakoff, after a furious assault; but at the same time the British were repulsed in an attack upon the Redan. The fall of the Malakoff rendered a further defense of the place useless; and on the 9th, September, 1855, the Russians evacuated the southern side of Sevastopol and left the town and the harbor in the possession of the allies.

Capture of Kinburn. On the 15th of October, 1855, General Bazaine, with fifteen thousand French and four thousand British troops from the allied army in the Crimea, landed at Kinburn and captured that post after a fierce bombardment. Late in November the Turks under Omar Pasha achieved a glorious victory at the river Ingour, when they forced a passage over the stream and compelled the Russians to evacuate their position and retreat to Kutais.

Capture of Kars. Important events occurred in Asiatic Turkey. On the 29th of September, 1855, the Turkish forces, under the command of the British General Williams, repulsed an attack of the Russians upon the town of Kars; and the place was defended successfully until the 28th of November, 1855, when the Turkish garrison was compelled to surrender, and the town fell into the hands of the Russians.

Peace of Paris. Early in 1856 an armistice was proclaimed. Soon afterward the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, France, Sardinia, Turkey and Russia assembled in Paris; and a treaty of peace was agreed upon on Sunday, March 30, 1856. By this treaty the Czar Alexander II. relinquished the ambitious pretensions of the House of Romanoff; Turkey was admitted into the European States-System, and its independence was guaranteed by the Powers; Servia and her native prince, though tributary to the Sultan of Turkey, were placed under the protection of the Five Great Powers; the Sultan's Christian subjects were to be secured in certain privileges; the Danube and the Black Sea were thrown open to the commerce of all nations; all vessels of war were excluded from the Black Sea; the Russian forts and arsenals on the Black Sea were to be destroyed; the Russian fortress of Nicolaieff was to be dismantled, and the Czar was to renounce all interference in the internal affairs of the Ottoman Empire. The eagle's quill mounted with gold

and gems, with which the treaty was signed, was presented to the Empress Eugenie of France. A salute of one hundred guns at the Hôtel des Invalides proclaimed the tidings of peace to the people of the French capital. Thus closed the *Crimean War*, in which more than one million of men perished in battle and of disease.

SECTION II.—SEPOY MUTINY IN BRITISH INDIA (A. D. 1857–1859).

IN the year of the termination of her war with Russia, 1856, Great Britain became involved in wars with China and Persia. The quarrel with China grew out of a trifling incident. A Chinese lorcha, or small vessel, was fired upon by the Chinese for some infraction of their police regulations. As the vessel was said to have borne the British flag, the British regarded the action of the Chinese authorities as a national insult, though it never had been proven that the vessel was under British colors. The British demanded reparation from the Chinese commissioner, Yeh, but he rejected their demand. Yeh's refusal brought on hostilities, and the navies of Great Britain and the United States became involved with the Chinese. France also sent a naval armament against China. Great Britain sent Lord Elgin as an envoy to negotiate a peace, and a large expedition accompanied him to support his pretensions. France also sent an ambassador thither, and William B. Reed was sent out on the part of the United States. The British and French bombarded and took Canton with its two million inhabitants, December 28, 1857. Although Commissioner Yeh was made prisoner, the Chinese Emperor showed no disposition to yield.

Great
Britain's
Second
War with
China.

In the spring of 1856 the Earl of Dalhousie was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Viscount Canning. In the course of a few months the British declared war against the Shah of Persia, and an Anglo-Indian expedition under Generals Outram and Havelock proceeded to Bushire, on the Persian Gulf. After a few insignificant conflicts, in which the Persians were put to flight, the Shah Nasr-ed-Din was forced to make peace by accepting the terms of the British; and by a treaty signed at Paris, March 4, 1857, he conceded all the British demands, one of which was that the British should have a station at Bushire. The British troops then returned to India.

Great
Britain's
War with
Persia.

But in 1857 a struggle of far greater magnitude than the Persian and Chinese wars employed the military strength of the British Empire—namely, the war produced by the mutiny of the Sepoys, or Hindoos in military service of the East India Company; and Generals Outram and Havelock returned from Persia in time to encounter the

Sepoy
Mutiny
in
British
India.

greatest peril that ever had menaced Great Britain's dominion in the East. Thus a century after Colonel Robert Clive had laid the foundation of Great Britain's empire in India, by his decisive victory at Plassey, was the first serious attack made to overthrow that powerful dominion.

**Growth of
British
India.**

In the century from 1757 to 1857 the British Indian Empire had grown by conquest and annexation until it embraced the whole of Hindoostan, except the native states of Nepaul, Bhootan and Cashmere in the North and the few French and Portuguese colonies on the coast. Thus almost all of that vast and populous country, extending from Cape Comorin on the south to the Himalayas on the north, and from the frontiers of Burmah on the east to the Indus and the borders of Afghanistan on the west, containing a population of two hundred millions, was ruled by British law and British influence.

**Moham-
medan
Discon-
tent in
India.**

For a long time the Mohammedans of India had been dissatisfied with their subordinate position. When, in 1849, Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of British India, compelled the titular King of Delhi to exchange the fortress of Delhi for the royal palace of the Kootub the hatred of the Delhi Mohammedans against the British government was increased. When the Kingdom of Oude was annexed to the British Indian Empire, in 1856, many of the Sepoys comprising the Bengal army who were natives of Oude were aroused to the highest pitch of indignation; and they succeeded in uniting all the Mohammedan sects in India, with the view of freeing themselves from British power.

**The
Bengal
Army.**

**Enfield
Rifles and
Greased
Car-
tridges.**

Circumstances soon occurred which favored the cause of the Mohammedans of India. It had been rumored among the Hindoos that the British government had resolved to compel all its subjects to embrace the Christian religion and abolish the distinctions of caste which prevail among the Hindoos. Early in 1857 the East India Company armed its Hindoo soldiers with the Enfield rifles, for which cartridges greased with pigs' and cows' fat were used. The Hindoos are forbidden by their religion to taste animal food; and, as the ends of the greased cartridges must be bitten off, the Sepoys believed that by using them they would become defiled, lose their caste and be bound to adopt the religion of their masters. Mohammedan emissaries secretly aroused the dissatisfaction of the Hindoos, for the advancement of their own rebellious schemes.

**Mutiny
of the
Bengal
Army**

During the month of April, 1857, many of the regiments composed of Sepoys in the Bengal army manifested a mutinous spirit. The 19th and 34th regiments, the Oude irregular infantry and a part of the 3d light cavalry at Meerut were the first to rise in rebellion. Other Sepoy regiments followed their example; and before long the whole Hindoo portion of the Bengal army, about one hundred and twenty thousand

men, stood in armed opposition to the British government. The rebellion was purely a mutiny and not a popular insurrection.

On the 11th of May, 1857, a party of mutineers from Meerut fiendishly massacred all the British residents at Delhi; but a small British force under the gallant Lieutenant Willoughby blew up the arsenal to prevent it from falling into the hands of the rebels.

**Massacre
of Delhi.**

At Cawnpore three hundred British troops under Sir Hugh Wheeler, and five hundred women and children, were attacked and besieged by a body of mutineers under Nana Sahib, a Mahratta prince. When Nana Sahib found that he could not take the place by force he offered the garrison and the women and the children a safe passage to Allahabad if they would evacuate Cawnpore; but no sooner had they embarked on boats in the river than they were fired upon by the treacherous mutineers, and many of their number were killed. One hundred and fifty who had surrendered were put to death, and the women and children were massacred soon afterward.

**Massacre
of
Cawn-
pore.**

At Lucknow, Sir Henry Lawrence, at the head of a British force, defeated a large body of rebel Sepoys; but he was afterward besieged in the residency at that place, and was mortally wounded in a sally at the beginning of July, 1857.

**Siege of
Lucknow.**

The greatest excitement prevailed in England on the arrival of intelligence of the mutiny of the hitherto-loyal Bengal army and the fiendish atrocities perpetrated by the mutineers. Within four months thirty thousand troops were sent from Great Britain to India for the suppression of the Sepoy rebellion and the full restoration of British authority in Hindoostan, and Sir Colin Campbell was sent to take the chief command of the British forces in India.

**Excite-
ment in
England.**

**British
Troops
Sent to
India.**

General Havelock, with British and loyal Hindoo troops, marched to the relief of the British garrison under Sir Hugh Wheeler at Cawnpore. He reached that place after marching one hundred and twenty-six miles and fighting four engagements with the mutineers, and after Nana Sahib had treacherously massacred the women and children, as already stated. When Havelock approached Cawnpore, Nana Sahib and his insurgent band fled; but they were pursued and were defeated eight times on the banks of the Ganges by the force under Havelock. The Sepoy regiments at Dinapore mutinied on the 25th of July, 1857; and, having fled from the station, they were pursued and defeated by Major Eyre, of the Bengal artillery.

**General
Have-
lock's
Victories
over
Nana
Sahib.**

In the latter part of August, 1857, the British force before Delhi, which had quietly watched the insurgents who had held possession of that famous city, was reinforced by British and Sikh troops; and on the 25th, August, 1857, the mutineers were defeated at Nujuffghur with heavy loss. On the 7th of September the British commenced be-

**Siege and
Fall of
Delhi.**

sieging Dehli with vigor. The whole British force did not exceed four thousand men. On the 14th of September, General Wilson, the British commander, divided his army into four columns. Two of these columns carried the Cashmere and Water bastions by storm on the same day. The Cashmere gate was blown up, when the third column joined the other two in the assault; and before the close of the day the British were masters of a considerable portion of the city. The fourth column was repulsed in an attack upon the city. On the 15th, September, 1857, the British shelled the palace and battered the magazine; and on the 16th a British storming party rushed forward, whereupon the insurgent artillerymen fled in dismay, leaving the British in possession of six pieces of cannon. On the 17th and 18th the British gained several important advantages; and after several more assaults the mutineers entirely evacuated the city of Delhi, which came into the military possession of the British on the 20th of September, 1857. A great part of the town was laid in ruins and filled with corpses, and numbers of captured mutineers were put to a cruel death.

Siege of Lucknow. Since June, 1857, a large body of British troops and women and children had been besieged in the residency at Lucknow by fifty thousand insurgents. While marching to their relief, General Havelock defeated forty thousand insurgents in the battle of Mungarwar, on the 21st of September, 1857. After a forced march of four days, Havelock and his troops appeared at Lucknow, on the 25th of September, and relieved the brave garrison. After severe fighting the rebel Sepoys were repulsed in all their assaults, but they still continued the siege with vigor. On the 12th of November, 1857, Sir Colin Campbell arrived at Lucknow with a strong British force, and took the garrison, along with the women and children, to Cawnpore.

Attack on Cawnpore. In December, 1857, Cawnpore was attacked by twenty-five thousand rebel Sepoys; but the timely arrival of the British force under Sir Colin Campbell saved the place and obliged the mutineers to retire, after a severe engagement. Soon afterward Sir Colin Campbell laid siege to Lucknow, which place, after a vigorous siege, fell into the hands of the British on the 17th of March, 1858.

Siege and Fall of Gwalior. After the fall of Lucknow, Gwalior became the stronghold of the Sepoy rebellion; but in June, 1858, that strong place was compelled to yield to the British arms; after which the war assumed a guerrilla character, and small bands roamed over various parts of India until the close of 1859, when peace was fully restored and British authority was completely reëstablished in India. The active power of the rebellion had passed away with the fall of Gwalior, in the summer of 1858; and soon after that event the Governor-General, Lord Canning, ordered a public thanksgiving for the overthrow of the rebellion and the

Close of the Sepoy Rebellion.

restoration of peace to British India. Many of the vanquished rebels were put to death in a most barbarous manner in revenge for their cruel massacres, some of them being tied to the mouth of the cannon and blown to atoms. A very important result of the mutiny was the transfer, in the summer of 1858, of the government of British India from the East India Company to the British crown, by act of the British Parliament.

“Banner of England, not for a season, O banner of Britain, hast thou
Floated in conquering battle or flapt to the battle-cry!
Never with mightier glory than when we had reared then on high
Flying at top of the roofs in the ghastly siege of Lucknow—
Shot through the staff or the halyard, but ever we raised thee anew,
And ever upon the topmost roof our banner of England blew.”

SECTION III.—WAR OF ITALIAN NATIONALITY AND UNION OF ITALY (A. D. 1859–1861).

THE general election in France in 1857 for members of the Corps Legislatif returned but half a dozen deputies who were opposed to the Emperor Napoleon III. Among these opposition deputies was General Cavaignac, whose subsequent premature death relieved the Emperor of a dangerous opponent in the Corps Legislatif. A four days' conference between the Emperors of France and Russia was held at the palace of the King of Würtemberg at Stuttgart, in September, 1857; the Queen of Greece being present.

French
Election.

Confer-
ence of
Emperors.

In January, 1858, while the carriage containing the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie was passing the Italian Opera House in Paris, three hollow projectiles were aimed at the Emperor's person, killing and wounding a number of persons. The Italian refugees, Orsini and Pierri, who made this attempt at regicide, were punished with death.

At-
tempted
Assassin-
ation of
Napoleon
III.

It was believed that the conspiracy to assassinate the Emperor Napoleon III. originated among the foreign refugees in England; and Lord Palmerston introduced a bill into Parliament for the alteration of the law regarding conspiracies, for the purpose of guarding against similar plots in the future. The excited language of the French press and the French army led to the belief that Lord Palmerston's bill had been presented in compliance with the demands of the French government. Great offense was thus given to the Liberal party in England, which was composed of Whigs and Radicals and which had taken the place of the Whig party as the opponent of the Tories, or Conservatives. Lord Palmerston was censured for too much subserviency to the dictation of the Emperor of the French in this precautionary measure, and

Relations
of Great
Britain
and
France.

his bill was rejected by the House of Commons. Lord Palmerston's credit suffered greatly as a result of this popular impression in England. It seemed for some time that the amicable relations between Great Britain and France would be interrupted by a war between the two nations, and a force of one hundred and fifty thousand volunteers was raised in England. The storm of popular indignation forced Lord Palmerston to resign, whereupon a Conservative Ministry under Lord Derby came into office for a few months.

Visits of
British
and
French
Sover-
eigns.

The common sense of the British and French nations averted the danger of war between them. Queen Victoria was present at the ceremonies of the opening of the great basin in the harbor of Cherbourg; and on August 4, 1858, Queen Victoria and Prince Albert were entertained by the Emperor Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugenie on board the French man-of-war *Bretagne*; after which the royal and imperial party landed and inspected the fortifications of Cherbourg. Her Britannic Majesty and her royal consort left France the next day, under a triple salute; and the fêtes lasted until the 8th, August, 1858, when they were closed by the dedication of the statue of Napoleon. The Parliamentary elections in England in 1859 restored Lord Palmerston to power, and he remained Prime Minister of Great Britain until his death in the fall of 1865.

Count
Cavour.

Count Cavour—the able statesman and Prime Minister of King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia—devoted himself to the cause of Italian nationality and freedom, and his efforts were seconded by the Emperor Napoleon III. of France.

Warlike
Threat of
Napoleon
III.

During the reception of foreign ministers, at his palace, on New Year's Day, 1859, the Emperor Napoleon III., in speaking to the Austrian ambassador to France about the affairs of Italy, made some remarks which were regarded by all who heard them as implying a threat of war; and it soon appeared that France was arming on an extensive scale. A marriage was negotiated between Prince Napoleon, the Emperor's cousin, and the Princess Clotilda, daughter of Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia, who was an avowed opponent of Austria with respect to the question of Italian independence; and events indicated the speedy approach of war.

Austria's
Demand
for
Sardinia's
Disarma-
ment.

The King of Sardinia, supported by France, was now making earnest preparations for war. Austria demanded that Sardinia should disarm immediately. Great Britain and Russia endeavored to avert hostilities by negotiation, but Austria's demand for the immediate disarmament of Sardinia was opposed by the other powers. Austria then proposed that all the powers should disarm. This was agreed to by Russia, Prussia, Great Britain, France and Sardinia; but the proposition that the Italian states should be represented in a congress of the Five Great

Powers was opposed by Austria, which still insisted on the immediate disarmament of Sardinia. This demand was still objected to by the other powers; and, as Austria would not recede from the position which she had taken, all hopes for an amicable settlement of the difficulty were dispelled.

In the latter part of April, 1859, Austria sent to Sardinia an ultimatum, demanding the immediate disbandment of her Italian volunteers, allowing only three days for a reply and threatening war in case of a rejection of the demand. The King of Sardinia rejected the Austrian ultimatum; and the Chambers of his kingdom, which he immediately summoned, conferred upon him dictatorial powers. On the 26th of April, 1859, the Austrian army, in three divisions, numbering together one hundred and twenty thousand men, crossed the Ticino and invaded Sardinia.

When intelligence of the Austrian invasion of Sardinia reached France a manifesto prepared by the French Emperor was presented in the Corps Legislatif, declaring that France would stand by Sardinia. Large bodies of French troops were now pushed forward into Italy with the utmost haste; and on the 10th of May the Emperor Napoleon III., leaving the government of France in the hands of the Empress Eugenie as regent, left Paris to take command of the French troops in person. On the 12th, May, 1859, he reached Genoa, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

After having exhausted the country which they had invaded, the Austrians fell back slowly toward Lombardy. The first battle of the *War of Italian Nationality* was fought on May 20, 1859, at Montebello—the same place where on the 9th of June, 1800, the French under General Lannes defeated the Austrians. After desperate fighting the Austrians were defeated with considerable loss. The French, who were commanded by General Forey, lost less than seven hundred men in killed and wounded. Among the killed on the side of the French was General Beuret. On the following day, May 21, 1859, a slight engagement occurred between the Austrians and the left wing of the allied army under General Cialdini.

A body of Italian volunteers under General Garibaldi invaded Lombardy and captured Varese, where they repulsed an attack of the Austrians on the 26th of May. After a fierce conflict on the 27th, the Italians took possession of Como, the Austrians retreating to Camerletta, where they were again defeated and compelled to continue their retreat. On the 29th of May the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria left Vienna for the seat of war, and arrived at Verona on the 31st. On the 29th the Sardinians crossed the Sesia and forced the Austrian works at Palestro, capturing two pieces of artillery and some small arms and

**Sardinia's
Rejection
of
Austria's
Ulti-
matum.**

**Austrian
Invasion
of
Sardinia.**

**French
Troops
Sent to
Italy.**

**Napoleon
III. Goes
to Italy.**

**Battle of
Monte-
bello.**

**Gari-
baldi's
Invasion
of Lom-
bardy.**

Austrian Defeats. prisoners. On the 31st twenty-five thousand Austrians were severely repulsed in an attempt to recover Palestro. On the 1st of June a French force under General Niel expelled the Austrians from Novara, after an insignificant conflict. The Emperor of the French entered Novara at five o'clock in the evening of the same day, meeting with an enthusiastic reception.

Battle of Magenta. On the 4th of June, 1859, was fought the great battle of Magenta, in which one hundred thousand French and Sardinians under General MacMahon were engaged. The Austrians were defeated with the loss of twenty-seven thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. After the battle the Emperor of the French and the King of Sardinia entered Milan, where they were welcomed with the warmest enthusiasm. Napoleon III. published a proclamation to the Italian people, declaring his intention of securing to Italy nationality and independence; and Victor Emmanuel issued a proclamation to the people of Lombardy, declaring that country united with Sardinia.

Proclamations of Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel. Battles of Melegnano and Solferino. On the 8th of June occurred the battle of Melegnano, which lasted nine hours and in which thirty thousand Austrians were engaged. The Austrians were defeated with the loss of thirty-two hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners. On the 24th of June, 1859, was fought the famous battle of Solferino, in which the contending forces on each side numbered about one hundred and forty thousand men, and in which the Emperor Napoleon III. and King Victor Emmanuel commanded their troops in person. This sanguinary conflict raged from five o'clock in the morning until late in the afternoon and resulted in the utter defeat of the Austrians, who were compelled to make a hasty retreat.

German Menace. The rapid successes of Napoleon III. excited alarm in Germany; and Prussia and the Germanic Confederation were preparing to take part in the war as allies of Austria, thus checking the Emperor of the French in the midst of his career of victory and obliging him to conclude a hasty peace.

Peace of Villa Franca. An armistice was agreed to on the 8th of July, 1859; and on the 11th of the same month a treaty of peace was signed at Villa Franca between the Emperors of France and Austria. The treaty was concluded on the following basis: The formation of the Italian Confederation, under the honorary presidency of the Pope; the cession of Lombardy by Austria to France, in trust for Sardinia; and Venetia, although retained by Austria, to constitute an integral part of the Italian Confederation. The King of Sardinia was dissatisfied with this treaty; and his Prime Minister, Count Cavour, immediately resigned. The Emperor Napoleon III. now left Italy, and arrived at his palace of St. Cloud on the 17th of July. A definitive treaty of peace was

Treaty of Zurich.

agreed upon at Zurich, in November, 1859, embracing the points specified in the Preliminary Peace of Villa Franca.

The Peace of Villa Franca was very far from satisfying the desire for Italian nationality, and the Emperor of the French was severely censured for permitting the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena to return to their dominions. King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia refused to enter into a scheme for an Italian Confederation; and Tuscany, Modena, Parma and the Papal State of Romagna petitioned the Sardinian king to annex them to his dominions. The King of Sardinia proceeded with great caution in acceding to this request. A popular vote in Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna, in March, 1860, resulted in overwhelming majorities in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia. Upon the annexation of the Romagna, Pope Pius IX. excommunicated the invaders of his dominions, without mentioning any one by name; but it was understood that this anathema was aimed at King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia and his supporters.

**Italian
Dissatis-
faction.**

Austria viewed these changes in Italy without offering any opposition. It was well known that France, though anxious for peace, would unite with Italy against any European power that should attempt to thwart a free expression of the will of the Italian people. France and her Emperor were the sincere friends of Italy; but Napoleon III. had an eye to his own interests, and demanded the cession of Savoy and Nice by Sardinia to France as a reward for French aid in the struggle for Italian nationality. The question of the cession of these provinces to France was submitted to a vote of their inhabitants, and was ratified by their votes in April, 1860.

**France's
Attitude.**

**Cession
of Savoy
and Nice
to France.**

King Ferdinand V. of Naples died in 1859 and was succeeded by his son FRANCIS II., a pupil of the Jesuits and who soon showed that he could become as cruel a despot as his tyrannical father. The Sicilians, exasperated at his tyranny and cruelty and encouraged by the success of their kinsmen on the Italian mainland, broke out into open revolt at Palermo, Messina and Catania, in March, 1860. It was expected that Sardinia would favor the outbreak in Sicily, but King Victor Emmanuel II. and Count Cavour both considered it most prudent not to interfere. The Sicilians, however, received aid from another quarter.

**Sicily's
Revolt
against
Francis
II. of
Naples.**

General Garibaldi, eluding the vigilance of the Sardinian government, sailed from Genoa with a force of two thousand men, May 5, 1860. He landed at Marsala and proclaimed himself Dictator of Sicily "in the name of Victor Emmanuel of Italy." He took Palermo with his little band of volunteers, and defeated the troops of King Francis II. of Naples at Melazzo—a victory which gave him posses-

**Gari-
baldi's
Conquest
of Sicily.**

sion of all Sicily except Messina, which remained in the possession of the Neapolitan troops.

Victor
Emmanuel II.
of
Sardinia
and Garibaldi.

Francis II. of Naples now appealed to Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia to put a stop to Garibaldi's attack upon his kingdom. The King of Sardinia, though he had secretly connived at Garibaldi's expedition, declared that he was not responsible for that leader's attack upon the Kingdom of Naples. Soon afterward Victor Emmanuel II., who feared the tendency of Garibaldi's republican sympathies, ordered him not to take any steps against Naples until the people of Sicily should vote in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia. Garibaldi refused to obey this order, and crossed from Sicily to the mainland of the Kingdom of Naples with his followers at Spartivento on the night of August 20, 1860. The "Hero of the Red Shirt" pushed on, defeated the Neapolitan troops at Reggio and San Giovanni and advanced toward the city of Naples. King Francis II. fled from his capital to Gaëta in a Spanish man-of-war, November 7, 1860; and the next day Garibaldi entered Naples a conqueror.

Garibaldi's
Conquest
of Naples.

Garibaldi and
Count
Cavour.

Many exiled Neapolitan patriots had taken advantage of the troubles of King Francis II. to return to their country, and Garibaldi found a provisional government organized in Naples when he entered the city. Great efforts were made to induce Garibaldi to withhold his conquests from the King of Sardinia, and the Neapolitan republicans hoped to found a republic in Southern Italy. Their schemes caused Count Cavour considerable anxiety. The Papal States were likewise causing some annoyance because of the guerrilla warfare which the irregular troops of Pope Pius IX. maintained against Sardinia, and Count Cavour warned the Pope that if those outrages did not cease immediately the Piedmontese army would invade the papal dominions. The Emperor Napoleon III. formally protested against Count Cavour's threat, but that was a mere formality. As the French Emperor was the sincere friend of Italian unity and nationality, he was ready to aid the Italians if they were attacked by any other European power. As Count Cavour's threat was unheeded by the Pope, a Piedmontese army under General Cialdini marched into the Papal States and captured Urbino, Perugia and a number of other towns.

Sardinian
Occupation
of the Papal
States.

Victor
Emmanuel's
Occupation
of
Naples.

In the meantime Garibaldi was joined by a number of volunteers in Naples; and he defeated the army of King Francis II. of Naples in a battle on the Garigliano, in October, 1860. King Victor Emmanuel II. of Sardinia now entered the Kingdom of Naples to secure the fruits of Garibaldi's victories, and Garibaldi hailed him as "King of Italy." The people of Naples and Sicily voted, by an overwhelming majority, in favor of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia, and their wishes were gratified. Several European powers expressed their displeasure

Annexation
of
Naples to
Sardinia.

at these changes; but none felt disposed to make war on their account, particularly as a war with Italy on this question meant a war with France likewise. The British government, under Lord Palmerston, openly declared its sympathy with the Italian people.

In 1861 all the states of Italy, except the papal dominions, the small republic of San Marino and the Austrian province of Venetia, were united into one monarchy called the *Kingdom of Italy*; the first Italian Parliament, which met at Turin, in February, 1861, having proclaimed King VICTOR EMMANUEL II. of Sardinia *King of Italy*.

Thus far all had been attended with enthusiasm, and there had been no trouble so far as the Italian people were concerned in establishing the Kingdom of Italy; but difficulties now gathered thick and fast about King Victor Emmanuel. Count Cavour and General Garibaldi could not agree; and the "Hero of the Red Shirt" retired to his home in the island of Caprera, and his army of volunteers disbanded. Messina, in Sicily, and Gaëta, on the mainland of the old Kingdom of Naples, held out against King Victor Emmanuel. Gaëta was defended by Francis II. of Naples in person, or rather by his young queen, Francis II. himself being an imbecile. The Italian people were discontented, as they believed that Garibaldi, whom they idolized, had not been properly treated by King Victor Emmanuel.

The policy which Victor Emmanuel had pursued in Sardinia toward the convents and other religious bodies was now put in force in the Neapolitan provinces, giving great offense to the superstitious people of that region. Brigandage prevailed in the Abruzzi districts, and was encouraged by the priests, as the brigands declared that they fought for King Francis II. When these brigands were defeated they would seek refuge in the Papal States, and it was charged that they were furnished with arms by the papal authorities. In the fall of 1860 they became so bold and active that Naples itself was not safe, and the entire region was kept in a state of terror.

In February, 1861, Francis II. of Naples fled from Gaëta to Rome, and Gaëta surrendered to the Italian forces. About the same time Generals Cialdini and La Marmora broke the power of the brigands of Southern Italy. The Neapolitans soon perceived the wisdom of the measures of the Italian government, and all classes among them were becoming conciliated by Count Cavour's beneficent reforms. Confidence in the "honest king" returned, and Italian affairs again assumed a hopeful aspect.

In the summer of 1861 the able Italian statesman and Prime Minister, Count Cavour, died; and his death was an irreparable loss to King Victor Emmanuel and the now-unified Italian nation. He had been the originator of most of the measures that had given freedom and

**Kingdom
of Italy.**

**Victor
Emman-
uel.**

**Victor
Emman-
uel's
Diffi-
culties.**

**The
Brigands
of Naples.**

**Pacifica-
tion of
Naples.**

**Count
Cavour's
Death.**

unity to Italy, and there was no one really capable of filling his place. His successor as Prime Minister of Italy was Baron Ricasoli.

Garibaldi's and Rattazzi's Designs on Rome.

All parties in Italy now longed for the annexation of the Papal States and Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy. Garibaldi was resolved upon the forcible annexation of Rome to the Italian kingdom; and Rattazzi, the successor of Ricasoli as Victor Emmanuel's Prime Minister, hoped to profit by Garibaldi's efforts to secure Rome as the capital of united Italy. Count Cavour would have commenced by arranging the matter with the Emperor Napoleon III., who was the nominal protector of the Holy See. But Rattazzi was blind to the necessity of conciliating the Emperor of the French, whose troops constituted the garrison of Rome, and was astonished to find the French Emperor resolved to crush Garibaldi's movement if the Italian government did not do so. Thus Rattazzi was obliged, against his will, to take sides against the very project which he had encouraged.

Attitude of Napoleon III.

Garibaldi's Defeat and Capture at Aspromonte.

Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers in Sicily and landed in Italy. He defeated an Italian force under General Cialdini at Reggio, September 28, 1862; but he was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner by an Italian army under General Pallavicini at Aspromonte, September 29, 1862. The wounded and captive Garibaldi was conveyed a prisoner to Spezzia. He declared in his defense that he had attacked the soldiers of Italy against his will and that he had been betrayed by Rattazzi, whose incompetence was responsible for the occupation of Rome by a French garrison. Garibaldi's declaration aroused such a storm of popular indignation in Italy that Rattazzi was driven from office. Garibaldi was conveyed to his island home in Caprera, and King Victor Emmanuel granted a general amnesty to his followers. The failure of Garibaldi's expedition made the Italian people more determined to unite Rome and Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy.

Garibaldi and Rattazzi.

Franco-Italian Convention of September, 1864.

In September, 1864, a convention was concluded between Italy and France by which the French Emperor agreed to withdraw his garrison from Rome in order to give Pope Pius IX. time to organize a military force for his own defense. By this convention the French evacuation of Rome was to be completed at the end of two years, when all French intervention in Italian affairs was to cease. In consideration of this agreement, the King of Italy pledged himself to prevent any attack on the Pope's temporal power. That power was evidently approaching its end, and would fall to pieces as soon as the protection of French bayonets was withdrawn. The new Kingdom of Italy would then be free to profit by the fall of the papal power, which she had bound herself not to hasten.

Florence Made the Capital of Italy.

In September, 1864, the capital of Italy was removed from Turin to Florence—a wise measure, as it placed the seat of the Italian govern-



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SCENES IN CHINA

Left: Farm Houses, Paddy Fields, and Tea Patches



Right: Chinese Lumbermen at Work

**Capture
of
Tien-tsin
and
Pekin.**

Great Britain and France resented China's bad faith by renewing the war with that empire, and an Anglo-French expedition was sent against Peking. The allies took the Peiho forts, August 21, 1860, and occupied Tien-tsin, August 24, 1860. The Chinese officials strove to check the progress of the allies by negotiation; but the British and French were aware of the design of the treacherous mandarins, and the allied forces advanced upon the Chinese capital, before which they arrived October 6, 1860. The allies conducted the operations before Peking with vigor and plundered and burned the Chinese Emperor's summer palace, a magnificent edifice. One of the gates of the capital was surrendered to the allies, October 13, 1860; whereupon the Chinese Emperor found himself obliged to yield, and he renewed and ratified the treaties with Great Britain and France. The allied forces then retired, and China has ever since observed her treaties with the Western powers.

**Franco-Spanish
War
with
Anam.**

For some time the Christian missionaries in the Empire of Anam had suffered persecution and cruel treatment, and in 1858 France and Spain sent a joint expedition against that empire of Farther India. The French prosecuted the war in Anam for four years, 1858-1862, taking many of the Anamese towns, and finally compelled the Emperor of Anam to accept a treaty of peace by which he ceded portions of the coasts of his provinces of Tonquin and Cochin China to France.

**Domestic
Troubles
in Spain.**

As we have seen, a succession of popular generals—Espartero, Narvaez and O'Donnell—ruled Spain under Queen Isabella II., keeping that kingdom in a condition of revolution and civil war for twenty years. In 1853 General Narvaez was exiled; and in 1854 General Espartero organized a military insurrection in Madrid and made himself Prime Minister. The queen-mother Maria Christina was impeached, whereupon she fled from Madrid. The elder Don Carlos died in 1855, transmitting his claims to the Spanish throne to his son, the Count de Montemolin.

**O'Donnell's
Rule in
Spain.**

An insurrection broke out at Valencia in 1856. Thereupon Espartero resigned and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Marshal O'Donnell, July, 1856. An insurrection in Madrid was quelled by Marshal O'Donnell, and the National Guard of Spain was disbanded, July, 1856. Marshal O'Donnell also quelled insurrections at Barcelona and Saragossa, July, 1856; but, after being made Dictator, he was forced to resign the office and was succeeded as Prime Minister by General Narvaez, who in the meantime had returned from exile.

**Spain's
War with
Morocco.**

In October, 1859, Spain became involved in a war with the Empire of Morocco, and Marshal O'Donnell commanded the Spanish army which invaded Morocco. The Emperor of Morocco proclaimed a "holy war," and sought to arouse the religious zeal of his subjects to the protection of their country against invasion and to the defense of

Islam against the foes of the Koran. The Spaniards under General Prim defeated an army of forty thousand Moors, January 2, 1860. The Moors were completely defeated and were obliged to accept the terms of peace dictated by Spain, March 26, 1860.

In 1860 unsuccessful efforts were made to overthrow Queen Isabella II. and to make the Count de Montemolin King of Spain. In 1860 the Emperor Napoleon III. proposed to recognize Spain as a first-class power; but Great Britain refused, and the project was abandoned.

**Plot
against
Isabella
II.**

In 1861 the annexation of San Domingo to Spain was ratified; and during the same year Spain joined Great Britain and France in sending an expedition to Mexico to obtain reparation for the losses of British, French and Spanish subjects in Mexico; but Spain and Great Britain withdrew their forces upon receiving satisfaction from the Mexican Republic in 1862; while the French remained, and sought to erect a monarchy in Mexico.

**British,
French
and
Spanish
Expedi-
tion to
Mexico.**

In 1863 Don Juan de Bourbon renounced his claims to the Spanish crown; and Marshal O'Donnell, who in the meantime had again become Prime Minister, again resigned that office. During the same year an insurrection broke out against Spanish authority in the newly-annexed island of San Domingo.

**O'Don-
nell in
Spain.**

A war between Spain and Peru broke out in 1864, and Spanish fleets proceeded to the coast of Peru. During the same year General Prim was exiled for conspiracy against the government. General Narvaez again became Prime Minister of Spain, and he advised the relinquishment of San Domingo; but Queen Isabella II. refused to follow his counsel in this matter.

**Spain's
War with
Peru.**

**Prim and
Narvaez.**

In 1865 a treaty of peace was made with Peru, by which that South American republic was compelled to pay a heavy war-indemnity to Spain. Queen Isabella II. ordered the sale of the crown-lands and gave three-fourths of them to the Spanish nation. During the year 1865 Spain relinquished San Domingo. During the same year Spain recognized the new Kingdom of Italy and also became involved in a war with Chili.

**Spain,
Peru and
Chili.**

In January, 1866, five of the South American republics—Chili, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador and Venezuela—formed an alliance against Spain. Spanish fleets bombarded Valparaiso, in Chili, and Callao, in Peru. Peace was not made until 1871, though hostilities had ceased for several years. During 1866 Spain formally recognized and formed a treaty with the five Central American republics—Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. During the same year General Prim led an insurrection against Queen Isabella II.; but the movement was foiled, and the insurgents fled into Portugal and laid down their arms.

**South
American
Alliance
against
Spain.**

**Prim's
Revolt in
Spain.**

Pedro V.
of
Portugal,
A. D.
1853-
1861.

Queen Maria II. of Portugal died in 1853 and was succeeded on the Portuguese throne by her son PEDRO V. As he was a minor when he became king, his father, Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, acted as regent until 1855, when the young king was declared of age. Ferdinand was sincerely attached to free institutions and inspired his son with similar sentiments. Upon assuming the government, Pedro V. exerted himself to repair the evils which the revolutions and civil wars of the previous reigns had brought upon his kingdom, and sought to promote the prosperity of his subjects. In 1861 Lisbon became a prey to the ravages of yellow fever. King Pedro V. sought to relieve the sufferers, thus exposing himself to the pestilence, to which he fell a victim, dying November 11, 1861.

Luiz I. of
Portugal,
A. D.
1861-
1889.

Pedro V. was succeeded as King of Portugal by his brother LUIZ I. In 1868 slavery was abolished in the Portuguese colonies. Industrial expositions were held at Oporto in 1866 and 1872. In 1873 the floating debt of Portugal was consolidated. Luiz I. died October 19, 1889, and was succeeded on the throne by his son CHARLES.

Reaction-
ary
Policy of
Emperor
Francis
Joseph of
Austria.

In 1851 the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria revoked the constitution which he had granted to his Empire in 1849, and in 1852 he abolished trial by jury in his dominions. In 1856 the Emperor granted amnesty to the Hungarian political offenders of 1848-'49. In 1860 he removed the political disabilities of the Jews in his Empire, but he restrained the liberty of the press still further. During the same year fresh troubles began in Hungary. Legislative powers were granted to the *Reichsrath*, or Austrian Parliament, which was also entrusted with the control of the public finances.

Troubles
in the
Austrian
Empire.

In 1861 there was great dissatisfaction throughout the Austrian Empire in consequence of the Emperor Francis Joseph's reactionary policy. The Emperor published a new constitution for his dominions. Civil and political rights were granted to the Protestants throughout the Empire, except in Hungary and Venetia. The Reichsrath assembled April 29, 1861; but no deputies were present from Hungary, Croatia, Transylvania, Venetia or Istria. The Hungarians demanded the restoration of the constitution of 1848, as the new liberal constitution did not satisfy them. In July, 1861, the military levied taxes in Hungary. The Emperor refused entire independence to Hungary, July 21, 1861. The Hungarian Diet protested against the Emperor's action, August 20, 1861, and was dissolved by the Emperor the next day, August 21, 1861. The magistrates at Pesth resigned; and in December, 1861, military government was established in Hungary.

Reforms
in the
Austrian
Empire.

In 1862 the Emperor Francis Joseph granted amnesty to the Hungarians, and prosecutions ceased on November 19th of that year. The

Ministry of Marine was created, and the principle of Ministerial responsibility was adopted in the government of the Austrian Empire. The Austrian army was reduced; and a personal liberty bill, similar to the English Habeas Corpus Law, was passed by the Reichsrath. In 1864 Transylvania accepted the new imperial constitution and sent deputies to the Reichsrath. In 1864 Galicia and Cracow were declared in a state of siege, in consequence of the troubles in Russian Poland.

The decade following the revolutionary storms of 1848-'49 was one of great material development in Germany, and that country enjoyed great material prosperity. Commerce and manufactures increased rapidly, and in the North German states great attention was paid to popular education.

In 1856 and 1857 there was a quarrel between Prussia and Switzerland about Neufchâtel, but Prussia finally relinquished her claims for a pecuniary consideration. In 1857 King Frederick William IV. of Prussia lost his reason; and his brother, Frederick William Lewis, was made regent. In 1858 Prince Frederick William, the regent's son, married the Princess Royal of Great Britain.

The unification of Italy in 1859, 1860 and 1861, exercised a powerful influence upon Germany in reviving the hopes of those who longed for the unity of the Fatherland and the exclusion of Austria from Germany.

On the death of Frederick William IV. of Prussia, January 2, 1861, his brother, the Prince Regent, became King of Prussia with the title of WILLIAM I. The new king and queen were crowned at Königsberg, October 18, 1861. William I. declared that he would "reign by the grace of God." The new king began his reign with the determination to reorganize the Prussian army. In 1862 a responsible Ministry was established in Prussia, but the king entered upon a reactionary policy. The government was defeated in the elections for the Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies resolutely opposed the course of the government relative to the reorganization of the Prussian army, as it involved a heavy expenditure of money; but King William I. persisted in his course, and appointed Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen as his Prime Minister, October 8, 1862, also making him Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Prussian king could not have made a better choice for Premier, as Bismarck was a statesman of the first order and was fully in sympathy with the king's desire to make Prussia the leading state of Germany. He went farther than King William I., and was determined to drive Austria from Germany. He was bold and fearless in everything that he undertook, firm and despotic in the manner of executing his

Prosperity in Germany.

Prusso-Swiss Quarrel.

Regency in Prussia.

German Aspirations.

William I., King of Prussia, A. D. 1861-1888.

His Contest with the Chamber of Deputies.

Count Bismarck

His Great Abilities as a Statesman.

His
Scheme
of Army
Reform.

plans, and was utterly indifferent to public sentiment. He was thenceforth for the rest of his life the master-spirit of the Prussian policy; and with his aid the Prussian king succeeded in carrying out his scheme of army reform, in spite of the opposition of the Chambers and in direct violation of the Prussian constitution. Bismarck declared openly in the Prussian Diet that the traditional contest between Prussia and Austria for supremacy in Germany could be settled only by "*blut und eisen*"—"blood and iron."

His
Quarrel
with the
Chamber
of
Deputies.

Bismarck informed the Chamber of Deputies that the budget was deferred until 1863. The Chamber of Deputies protested against this as unconstitutional, September 30, 1862. The Chamber of Peers passed the budget without the amendments of the Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies declared the action of the Chamber of Peers unconstitutional, October 11, 1862. King William I. prorogued the Chambers, and announced that "the budget for the year 1862, as decreed by the Chamber of Deputies, having been rejected by the Chamber of Peers on the ground of insufficiency, the government of His Majesty is under the necessity of controlling public affairs outside the constitution," October 13, 1862.

King
William's
Arbitrary
Course.

The quarrel of King William I. and Bismarck with the Chamber of Deputies continued in 1863. The king prorogued the Chambers and resolved to govern without a Diet, May 27, 1863; and severe restrictions were imposed upon the press, June 1, 1863. The Crown Prince Frederick William disavowed participation in the recent action of the Ministry, June 5, 1863.

Austria
and a
German
Congress.

Austria had watched the course of Prussia with ill-concealed anxiety; and in August, 1863, to the astonishment of Germany, she summoned a congress of the German princes to meet at Frankfort-on-the-Main to make certain reforms in the constitution of the German Confederation. Prussia declined to participate in the proposed congress, and the Austrian project fell through.

Abdul
Aziz,
Sultan of
Turkey,
A. D.
1861-
1876.

In 1861 Sultan Abdul Medjid died and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother ABDUL AZIZ. In December, 1861, the tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia were erected into the almost-independent principality of Roumania, with a prince elected by the people and confirmed by the Sultan. Thus Roumania bore the same relation to the Ottoman Porte as Serbia, being virtually independent and acknowledging but a nominal allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey. In 1866 Charles of Hohenzollern, a remote relative of the Prussian royal family, was elected Prince of Roumania by the Roumanian Chambers.

Rou-
mania.

In December, 1861, a combined French, Spanish and British expedition invaded Mexico, to secure payment of the claims of French,

Spanish and British subjects. The British and Spaniards withdrew from Mexican soil in 1862, upon receiving satisfaction from the Mexican government and upon being apprised of the aim of the Emperor Napoleon III. to overthrow the Mexican Republic and establish a monarchy on Mexican soil. The French troops remained to carry out the French Emperor's ambitious scheme. The French army under General Forey took Puebla by siege, May 15, 1863, and occupied the city of Mexico, June 13, 1863.

French,
British
and
Spanish
Expedi-
tion to
Mexico.

A Mexican Assembly of Notables, under French influence, declared Mexico a hereditary Empire and proclaimed the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, *Emperor of Mexico*. Maximilian and his wife, Carlotta, entered the Mexican capital in June, 1864. The war between the French and the Mexican imperialists on one side and the Mexican republicans under President Benito Juarez on the other continued with various success for several years. In December, 1866, Napoleon III. withdrew the French expeditionary forces from Mexico, at the urgent demand of the United States; and Maximilian's Empire rapidly tottered to its fall.

Maximil-
ian of
Austria,
Emperor
of
Mexico.

Maximilian refused to abdicate, as advised by the French Emperor. In 1867 Maximilian was hemmed in at Queretaro, where, through the treachery of the imperialist General Lopez, he was captured and finally shot by the republicans, June 19, 1867; and his empress, Carlotta, became hopelessly insane. Thus the Mexican Republic triumphed, and the French Emperor's design of founding a Latin empire in America failed ignominiously. This Franco-Mexican war will be more fully described in the history of Mexico.

His
Over-
throw
and Exe-
cution.

For a long time the Greek people had suffered under the misrule of King Otho. Oppression followed oppression. The greater part of the uncultivated lands became the property of the crown. The peasants were required to pay a heavy land-tax, and manufactures were discouraged. The public money was squandered by the extravagant court, and the corrupt Ministry succeeded by bribes in having the legislative Chambers filled with the supporters of the crown.

Tyranny
of King
Otho in
Greece.

The growing discontent of the Greek people compelled King Otho to call on Canaris to form a new Ministry; but when Canaris presented to the king a memorial asking for the dissolution of the fraudulently-elected Chambers, the formation of a National Guard and the abolition of the censorship of the press he was dismissed, and the corrupt Ministry remained in power.

His
Quarrel
with
Canaris.

Soon afterward King Otho caused more than one thousand of the popular party to be imprisoned on a charge of plotting against the government. The result of this outrageous act was the breaking-out of a revolt at Nauplia on the 12th of February, 1862. The city of

Revolu-
tion in
Greece
and Over-
throw
of King
Otho.

Nauplia was besieged by the government troops, and the insurgents were forced to surrender on the 20th of April, 1862. An amnesty was granted to all but nineteen of the insurgents; but this amnesty was afterward violated, and many of the insurgents were thrown into prison. Another insurrection against the king in the meantime had broken out in the island of Syra. The Syrans were defeated in the naval battle of Thermia, but still they refused to submit. During the summer the spirit of opposition to the government manifested itself throughout Greece, while the tyranny of the king continually increased. Convicts were liberated from the prisons to plunder and keep down the people, and the press was prohibited from publishing the sentiments of the people. The opposition to King Otho became so great that he was obliged to abdicate his throne, on the 30th of October, 1862, and to leave Greece a few days afterward. A provisional government under Demetrius Bulgaris was immediately installed; and in the following year, 1863, Prince George of Denmark was raised to the throne of Greece, with the title of *GEORGE I., King of the Hellenes*. In 1863 Great Britain abandoned her fifty years' protectorate of the Ionian Isles, and those islands were annexed to the Kingdom of Greece.

Prince
George of
Denmark,
King
of the
Hellenes.

Russian
Oppres-
sion in
Poland.

The Poles who had assembled at Warsaw on the 15th of October, 1861, to celebrate the memory of Kosciuszko were prevented from doing so by the Russian authorities, who, the day before, had declared the city in a state of siege and stationed large bodies of troops in the streets. The people nevertheless assembled in the churches peaceably; and, when the churches were filled, the soldiers ordered them to disperse. As the Poles refused to obey, the Russian soldiers, by order of their commander, carried more than two thousand of them to the Citadel. These tyrannical proceedings were followed by the arrest, imprisonment, banishment, and condemnation to death, of the most prominent Poles.

At-
tempted
Assassin-
ations.

In the summer of 1862 attempts were made by the Poles in Warsaw to assassinate the Archduke Constantine, Lieutenant of Poland and brother of the Czar Alexander II. The Archduke and Count Wialopolski were severely wounded; but the assassins were arrested, condemned and executed.

Polish
Revolt of
1863.

In November, 1862, the Russian government determined to put the citizens of the towns in Poland who had manifested any opposition to its authority into the Russian army as common soldiers and to send them to perform military service in Siberia. This harsh measure roused the Poles to a spirit of resistance, and a general insurrection against Russian authority commenced throughout Poland. Small bands of insurgent Poles engaged in numerous conflicts with the Russian troops without decisive results. The revolt never arose above the

character of a guerrilla war. This Polish rebellion at one time threatened complications dangerous to the general peace of Europe. Great Britain, France, Austria and Sweden sympathized with the Poles and asked of the Russian Emperor the amelioration of their condition. The insurrection continued for upwards of a year, and it was with great difficulty that the Russian government was enabled to suppress the rebellion in the summer of 1864. The Czar adopted harsh measures against the unfortunate Poles, many of whom were imprisoned, banished or executed. The Polish language was forbidden in the schools of Poland, and Russian was substituted instead; and in 1868 Poland ceased to exist and was entirely absorbed in the Russian Empire.

**Its Cruel
Suppression.**

The Czar Alexander II. of Russia pursued a policy different from that of his father. He began his reign with the determination to complete the work of civilization begun by Peter the Great, and he devoted his efforts wholly to the reform of the old Russian system. In these efforts he was opposed by the old Russian, or conservative party; but he persevered, and during his reign Russia began a new period in her national career. He granted trial by jury in 1862 and conceded additional privileges to the Jews in the Russian Empire.

**Reforms
of Czar
Alexander
II.**

But the greatest of the Czar's reforms and the one which has immortalized his name was the emancipation of the Russian serfs. Of the thirty-eight millions of serfs in the Russian Empire at that time, sixteen millions were the property of the Russian crown. They were bought and sold with the lands on which they lived, and their condition was in all respects very degraded. The serfs on the imperial domains were emancipated in 1858.

**The
Russian
Serfs.**

On February 1, 1861, the Czar Alexander II. of Russia issued an imperial ukase promising the emancipation of the remaining Russian serfs two years from that date; and accordingly the serfs were declared free on February 1, 1863. By this action of the Czar twenty-three millions of Russians were raised from a most degrading condition to the position of free Russian subjects, and measures were taken for their improvement.

**Their
Emancipation
by
Alexander
II.**

The Emperor Alexander II. steadfastly encouraged the emancipated serfs to acquire property and aided them to do so. He sought to establish schools among them which he hoped would eventually improve their character and give to Russia an intelligent and industrious peasantry in the place of the former degraded slaves.

**Efforts to
Improve
Them.**

During the civil war in Japan between the Shogun and the Mikado the Mikado's forces fired upon the ships of Great Britain, France, Holland and the United States. These powers sent a combined squadron to Shimonoseki in 1864, and that Japanese town was taken after a severe bombardment. The allies compelled Japan to pay an indemnity of

**War of
Western
Nations
with
Japan.**

three million dollars. This result made the Japanese aware of the power of the Western nations, and they have ever since been more cautious in their conduct toward the foreigners.

SECTION V.—SECOND SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN WAR AND SEVEN WEEKS' WAR (A. D. 1864–1866).

Danish
and
Schles-
wig-
Holstein
Succes-
sion.

A CONGRESS of European Powers, assembled at London in 1852, settled the succession to the throne of Denmark and to the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein upon Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. On the death of King Frederick VII. of Denmark, in November, 1863, Prince Christian succeeded to the throne of Denmark as CHRISTIAN IX. and to the sovereignty of the German Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; but the succession to the Duchies was claimed by Duke Frederick of Augustenburg, whose rights had been disregarded by the London Congress of European Powers. The people of Schleswig and Holstein, mostly Germans, for the most part sided with the Duke of Augustenburg, who also had the sympathies of the whole German nation.

Occupation
of
Holstein.

In January, 1864, the Diet of the Germanic Confederation sent an army into Schleswig and Holstein, to support the claims of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg and to prevent the incorporation of those German Duchies with the Kingdom of Denmark; while Austria and Prussia, acting independently of the Federal Diet, also sent armies into the Duchies; and a war ensued between Denmark and the German powers.

Austro-
Prussian
Victories
in Schles-
wig-Hol-
stein and
Jutland.

The allied Austro-Prussian army under the Prussian General Wrangel, consisting of Austrians under General Gablenz and Prussians under Prince Frederick Charles, the nephew of King William I. of Prussia, crossed the Eider, February 1, 1864, and seized Altona. The Danes were forced back through Holstein and Schleswig into Jutland, amid continual skirmishing, in February, March and April, 1864. Finally the strongly-fortified Danish line of defense, the Dannewirke, was carried by storm, whereupon the allies overran the whole peninsula of Jutland, and the strong fortress of Düppel was taken by assault and bombardment, April 18, 1864; but the Danish fleet defeated the allied fleet off Heligoland, May 9, 1864.

Danish
Naval
Victory.

Armistice
and
Renewal
of Hos-
tilities.

Through the efforts of Great Britain a conference of the Five Great Powers convened in London and induced the belligerent powers to consent to an armistice, May 9, 1864; but hostilities were renewed June 26, 1864. The allies drove the Danes from the island of Alsen, opposite Düppel, June 29, 1864. A second armistice was concluded July

18, 1864; and by a preliminary treaty of peace, August 1, 1864, and a definitive treaty of peace, October 30, 1864, both concluded at Vienna, King Christian IX. of Denmark relinquished Schleswig-Holstein to Austria and Prussia.

Peace of Vienna.

In 1865 Austria was disturbed by financial troubles. The Emperor Francis Joseph resolved upon political reforms. Concessions were to be made to Hungary, and a more liberal manner of administering the imperial government was introduced. The Emperor published a rescript suppressing the constitution for the purpose of granting independence to Hungary. During that year the Emperor visited Hungary. There was discontent in the other parts of the discordant Austrian Empire.

Austria's Internal Troubles.

In 1865 King William I. of Prussia and Prime Minister Bismarck were involved in another quarrel with the Chamber of Deputies of that kingdom over the army budget. The Chamber of Deputies rejected the budget, whereupon the king prorogued the Prussian Diet and declared that he would rule without it. The king arbitrarily seized and disposed of the public revenue.

Prussia's Internal Troubles.

A dispute between Austria and Prussia concerning the sovereignty of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which those two great powers had wrested from Denmark in 1864, led to a short but fierce and decisive war in the summer of 1866. Austria seemed disposed to support the claims of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg to the sovereignty of the Duchies; but, in October, 1865, Prussia declared that, according to the late treaty with Denmark, the sovereignty of the two Duchies had been yielded to Austria and Prussia jointly. Prussia considered the favor of Austria for Duke Frederick of Augustenburg as indicating antagonism to the joint sovereignty of Austria and Prussia over the Duchies.

Austro-Prussian Quarrel over Schleswig-Holstein.

War between Austria and Prussia was averted in 1865 by the Convention of Gastein, negotiated by Count von Bismarck and the Austrian envoy, Count Blome, by which Prussia purchased the Austrian Emperor's rights in the Duchy of Lauenburg for two and a half million Danish dollars, while it was agreed to place Schleswig under Prussian control and Holstein under Austrian rule until the question of inheritance could be settled. Prussia was to hold the port of Kiel, which was to be free to the Austrian fleet. Prussia was not yet prepared for war and had merely consented to this settlement to gain time. This convention gave great offense to the German Federal Diet.

Gastein Convention.

The quarrel very soon reopened. General Manteuffel, the Prussian governor of Schleswig, forbade all agitation in that Duchy in favor of the Duke of Augustenburg; while Austria sought to frustrate the Prussian scheme for securing the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, per-

Renewal of the Austro-Prussian Quarrel over Holstein.

mitting the partisans of the Duke of Augustenburg in Holstein to do as they saw fit.

**The
Real
Issue.**

On January 26, 1866, Prussia formally protested against the Austrian policy in Holstein; and Austria replied that she would firmly adhere to her policy. This correspondence was followed by measures showing that the inevitable struggle between Austria and Prussia for supremacy in Germany was at hand and that the irrepressible conflict would soon have to be settled by "blood and iron." The quarrel over the disposition of the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein was merely a pretext for war, the true cause of the struggle being the traditional Austro-Prussian contest which had been going on since the days of Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa.

**Arming
of
Austria
and
Prussia.**

In the early part of 1866 Austria placed her army on a war-footing; and Prussia, suspecting the designs of Austria, began to arm in her defense. Austria pretended that her military preparations were with the view of protecting the Jews in Bohemia from persecution. The smaller German states endeavored to have the difficulty between the two great powers settled by the process of Austragal Judgment, as provided for in the eleventh article of the Federal Pact; but Prussia insisted on a reorganization of the Germanic Confederation. At length both Austria and Prussia agreed to disarm; but in the meantime Prussia had entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Italy, and both Austria and Prussia continued their armaments.

**Prussia's
Demand.**

The discussions of Prussia's demand for a reorganization of the Germanic Diet rendered an amicable adjustment of the dispute still more difficult, and at length Prussia declared that if her demands were not complied with by the Diet she would seek redress through some other source. The Austrian governor of Holstein had received orders to summon the Estates of the Duchy to consider their political relations. Prussia considered this a violation of the stipulations of the treaty of 1864; and Count von Bismarck, the Prussian Prime Minister, dispatched a military force into Holstein; whereupon the Austrians withdrew from that Duchy.

**Prussian
Occupation
of
Holstein.**

**German
Federal
Army
Mobilized.**

A motion for the mobilization of the German Federal army was, through the influence of Austria, adopted by the Federal Diet; whereupon Prussia declared the Diet dissolved on account of the violation of the Germanic Constitution, withdrew from the Germanic Confederation and called upon the German states to unite with her under a new constitution. On the 18th of June, 1866, Italy and Prussia formally and conjointly declared war against Austria and immediately set their armies in motion.

**War
Declared.**

Prussian troops had already occupied Hesse-Cassel, Hanover and Saxony, because those states refused to unite with Prussia in a new

confederation. The King of Saxony fled into Bohemia, destroying the bridges and tearing up the railroads behind him. Prussia vainly attempted a reconciliation with Hanover. Although successful in the battle of Langensalza with the Prussians, June 27, 1866, the Hanoverian army, not receiving the expected assistance of the Bavarians, was obliged to surrender to the Prussians, whose numbers were increasing.

**Prussian
Occupation of
Hanover
and
Saxony.**

In Western Germany the Prussians under General von Falkenstein and General Manteuffel were victorious over the Federal German armies under Prince Charles of Bavaria and Prince Alexander of Hesse. After Manteuffel's victory at Aschaffenburg, Von Falkenstein occupied Frankfort and exacted enormous contributions from that free city by the threat of a bombardment.

**Prussian
Victories
in
Germany.**

The Italian armies at this time were contending against the Austrians in Northern Italy. On the 24th of June, 1866, was fought the battle of Custoza, in which the Italians were defeated and compelled to retreat. In July the Italian army invaded Venetia and forced the Austrians to fall back. General Garibaldi, with twelve thousand Italians, was in the passes of the Tyrol, to the left of the main Italian army. The Italian left wing compelled the Austrians to retreat beyond Trent, in the Tyrol. The Italian right pursued the Austrians in their retreat through Venetia. While these movements were taking place on land, the Italian navy was defeated off the island of Lissa by the Austrian fleet under Admiral Tegethoff, July 20, 1866.

**Opera-
tions in
Italy.**

**Battle of
Custoza.**

**Naval
Battle of
Lissa.**

In the meantime the Prussians were conducting a brilliant campaign against the Austrians in Bohemia. Three large Prussian armies, numbering together two hundred and fifty-six thousand men, had been assembled in June, 1866, for the invasion of the Austrian province of Bohemia. The 1st Prussian army under Prince Frederick Charles, the nephew of King William of Prussia, advanced into Bohemia from Saxony. The 3d Prussian army, under General von Bittenfeld, joined the 1st Prussian army in Bohemia before the close of June; and the Austrians were defeated near Gitschin and forced to fall back. The 2d Prussian army, under the Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia, passed the frontiers of Silesia and advanced into Bohemia; General Steinmetz defeating the Austrians at Nachod and Skalitz, June 27, 1866.

**Prussian
Invasion
of
Bohemia.**

After brilliant maneuvering and a series of conflicts in which the Prussians captured fifteen thousand prisoners and twenty-four pieces of artillery, the 1st and 3d Prussian armies became engaged with two hundred thousand Austrians under Field-Marshal Benedek, at nine o'clock in the morning of the 3d of July, 1866, at the little village of Sadowa, near Königgratz. The Prussians had held their ground firmly

**Battle of
Sadowa.**

against the superior force of the Austrians, when the arrival of the Crown Prince with the 2d Prussian army, at one o'clock in the afternoon, decided the battle against the Austrians, who, after fighting bravely, were defeated with the loss of forty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners and one hundred and seventy-four pieces of cannon. The victorious Prussians lost about ten thousand men. The Prussian needle-gun did its work.

Peace of
Nichols-
burg and
Prague.

After the battle of Sadowa the shattered Austrian forces retreated to Olmütz, in Moravia, pursued by the Prussians, who gained another victory on the 22d of July, 1866. The Austrian government, seriously alarmed at the rapid advance of the triumphant Prussians, was now anxious for peace; and, through the mediation of France, an armistice was concluded at Nicholsburg, July 26, 1866. On the 23d of August, 1866, a treaty of peace was signed at Prague by the plenipotentiaries of Austria and Prussia. By this treaty Austria ceded Venetia to Italy, consented to the formation of a new German Confederation from which she was to be excluded, surrendered the entire sovereignty of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia and paid a war-indemnity of twenty million thalers to Prussia.

Prussian
Treaties
with
Other
German
States.

Prussia concluded treaties of peace on terms advantageous for herself with Bavaria, Würtemberg and Baden in August, 1866; with Hesse-Darmstadt in September, 1866, and with Saxony in October, 1866. Bavaria was obliged to cede a small portion of her territory to Prussia, and Hesse-Darmstadt was forced to relinquish the Landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg and the right to garrison the fortress of Mayence. Prussia entered into a secret alliance with all these German states except Bavaria, by which they agreed to place their troops under the supreme command of the King of Prussia in time of war. In the meantime Prussia had annexed Schleswig, Holstein, Hanover, Nassau, Hesse-Cassel and the free city of Frankfort, by right of conquest. An armistice had been proclaimed between Austria and Italy; and on the 3d of October, 1866, a treaty of peace between those two powers was signed at Vienna, Austria surrendering Venetia to Italy.

Peace of
Vienna.

Recon-
ciliation
in
Prussia.

The wonderful successes of Prussia in this short and decisive war caused the constitutional party of Prussia to forget and forgive the violations of the Prussian constitution by King William I. and Prime Minister Bismarck, as the result of the struggle so amply vindicated their foresight. On his return to Berlin, on August 4, 1866, the King of Prussia met with an enthusiastic reception; and a cordial and permanent reconciliation between the king and the Chambers followed.

North
German
Confed-
eration.

As a result of the Seven Weeks' War, the old Germanic Confederation, formed by the Congress of Vienna in 1815, was dissolved, and a *North German Confederation* under the leadership of Prussia was

established; while Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt became independent sovereign states. The states of this league placed their armies wholly under the control and direction of Prussia.

The North German Diet, or Parliament, assembled at Berlin, February 24, 1867, and set about the task of framing a constitution for the Confederation; and this constitution was in full operation by July 1, 1867. It vested the legislative power of the Confederation in a Diet elected by the people of the North German states and a *Federal Council* composed of representatives of the same states. The executive power of the Confederation was vested in the King of Prussia as President.

**North
German
Constitu-
tion.**

This constitution was not considered final, as the South German states were still independent; and a large party in North Germany, called the National Liberal party, desired the union of those states with the new Confederation. Count von Bismarck, who openly favored such union, was ardently supported by that party in both the Prussian and North German Diets. A step in that direction was made in May, 1868, when a customs-parliament elected by all the German states convened at Berlin to adjust the commercial relations of those states. Baden and Hesse-Homburg signed a convention by which their military system was arranged upon a basis similar to that of the North German Confederation. Baden very much desired to become a member of the North German Confederation, but was hindered by the reluctance of the other South German states to take such a step. There were two parties in South Germany hostile to Prussia—the Ultramontanes, or extreme Catholics, because of her Protestantism; and the democrats, because of her absolutist tendencies. These parties opposed the union of South and North Germany under Prussia's leadership so bitterly that even the most sanguine friends of such a union began to despair of its consummation; but in a few years the attack of a powerful neighbor brought about the realization of this end, as we shall see presently.

**Isolation
of the
South
German
States.**

After the close of the Seven Weeks' War the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria ceased to take any part in the affairs of Germany and devoted himself to the improvement of his hereditary Austrian states. Peace found the Austrian Empire in a most deplorable condition. Its armies had been almost ruined by the reverses which they had sustained in the field, and the finances of the Empire were in the same wretched condition. The different nationalities of the ill-compacted Empire, weary of their long deprivation of civil and religious liberty, were on the verge of rebellion; and the monarchy of the Hapsburgs was about to fall to pieces.

**Austria's
Deplo-
rable
Condi-
tion.**

Ministry
of Baron
von
Beust in
Austria.

In this emergency the Emperor Francis Joseph summoned to his aid the able and enlightened statesman, the Baron von Beust, the former Prime Minister of Saxony, whom he created President of the Imperial Council. Baron von Beust, as Prime Minister of the Austrian Empire, advised a prompt reconstruction of the imperial system; and the Emperor Francis Joseph acted upon his advice.

His
Reforms
in
Austria-
Hungary

Austria, thus expelled from Germany, entered upon an era of liberal reform, under the Ministry of the Saxon Baron von Beust. Hungary received a separate Diet and a separate Ministry under Count Andrássy, and was united with Austria by a joint assembly, composed of sixty members from each Diet, called *The Delegations*, which meets alternately at Vienna and Pesth. Popular representative government was established in all the Austrian states; civil, political and religious equality was established; marriage and education were made independent of priestly control; and in a single session of the Austrian Reichsrath, or Parliament, 1867-'68, despotisms of a thousand years were swept away, and Austria-Hungary, so long the bulwark of European despotism, became as liberal a constitutional monarchy as Great Britain. The Concordat with the Pope was annulled in 1870, and perfect religious toleration was established. The Emperor Francis Joseph was crowned *King of Hungary*, at Pesth, in 1867; and in 1868 the Empire received the title of the *Austro-Hungarian Monarchy*.

Their
Happy
Results.

The establishment of constitutional government in Austria was followed by the happiest results, but was attained and secured only by the most determined contest with the old nobility of the Empire and with the Roman Catholic clergy. Fortunately for the Empire, the Emperor Francis Joseph has adhered firmly to his reforms, and despotism has been rooted out of its chosen home, so that Austria is no longer the China of Europe. Thus the results of the Seven Weeks' War were the partial unification of Germany and Italy and the reorganization of Austria-Hungary and her exclusion from Germany.

SECTION VI.—REVOLUTION OF 1868 IN SPAIN AND REFORM IN FRANCE (A. D. 1867-1869).

Cretan
Revolt
against
Turkey.

IN 1866 a revolt broke out in the island of Candia, or Crete, against the Turks. The insurrection lasted several years, and the Cretans offered a valiant resistance to the Ottoman forces. The revolt enlisted the sympathies of Greece, whose people desired the annexation of the island to their kingdom. Early in 1869 this struggle threatened a rupture between Greece and Turkey, but war between those two states was prevented by the intervention of the Great Powers.

At the end of the year 1866 the French garrison was withdrawn from Rome, in accordance with the terms of the Convention of September, 1864. General Garibaldi now announced his intention to wrest Rome from Pope Pius IX. Rattazzi, who had again become Prime Minister of Italy, secretly encouraged Garibaldi's movement, hoping thus to obtain Rome for Italy without incurring the hazard of a war with France; but he managed the affair miserably.

Garibaldi's Movement on Rome in 1867.

Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers, but while he was preparing to invade the Papal States he was arrested by order of the Italian government and was conveyed to his home in the island of Caprera. In the meantime his volunteers crossed the Roman frontier without being molested by the Italian government, and Garibaldi was permitted to escape from his island home in Caprera and to rejoin his forces. The sympathy of the Italian government was so open that Garibaldi expected to be supported by the royal army, but this open sympathy of the Italian government had induced the Emperor Napoleon III. to inform that government that he would consider any further attack on the Pope's dominions as a declaration of war against France.

Attitude of King Victor Emmanuel and Emperor Napoleon III.

In the meantime Garibaldi had defeated the papal troops at Monte Rotondo, and disturbances had taken place in Rome. Thereupon King Victor Emmanuel of Italy issued a proclamation announcing his determination to prevent any further advance of the Garibaldians upon the papal territories; but the Emperor of the French declared the Convention of September, 1864, broken and placed a new French garrison in Rome.

Their Policy.

Garibaldi believed that the Italian government would be obliged to resent the French Emperor's action, and therefore he prepared to disband his volunteers. His garrison at Mentenna surrendered to the French and papal forces, November 4, 1867, after a gallant resistance. The Italian government caused Garibaldi to be arrested while he was on his way to Caprera, but the indignation of the Italian people forced their government to release him and to permit him to return to his home in Caprera.

Utter Failure of Garibaldi's Raid.

The popular indignation in Italy at the failure of Garibaldi's movement forced Rattazzi to resign office for the second time. The other Great Powers so strongly disapproved of the French reoccupation of Rome that the Emperor Napoleon III. declared that it would be ended as soon as a definite arrangement could be made with Italy.

Its Result.

The dissolute and tyrannical conduct of Queen Isabella II. made her detested by her subjects. Unsuccessful insurrections against her authority occurred at different times, and for several years Spain was in a disturbed condition. Isabella's extravagance and profusion to her favorites produced a growing discontent throughout the Spanish king-

Tyranny of Queen Isabella II. of Spain.

dom. In 1868 Gonzales Bravo became Prime Minister of Spain. He summarily arrested and banished seven of the most distinguished Spanish generals, as well as the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier; the latter of whom was the Spanish queen's sister, as already noticed. This arbitrary measure hastened the crisis; and about the middle of September, 1868, the Spanish army, under the leadership of Generals Prim and Serrano, broke out into rebellion. The revolt soon extended throughout the kingdom; and the navy and all the important towns declared against the queen, who in the meantime had repaired to San Sebastian, under pretense of sea-bathing, but really to be near the French frontier in order to consult her ally, the Emperor Napoleon III., who was then at Bayonne. The rebels occupied Madrid, and the queen's authority was at an end. The triumphant rebels established a Central Provisional Junta to conduct public affairs. Upon hearing of the success of the revolution, Queen Isabella the Bad fled across the Pyrenees into France, and was assigned a residence at Pau by the French Emperor. A bloody insurrection against Spanish authority now broke out in the island of Cuba, and continued for ten years, ending in the restoration of Spanish authority in the island.

**Her
Over-
throw
by the
Revolution
of
1868.**

**Cuban
Revolt of
1868.**

**Spain's
Constituent
Cortes.**

In November, 1868, elections for a Constituent Cortes were held in Spain. This Cortes assembled soon afterward, and, after long deliberation, adopted a new monarchical constitution, on the 1st of June, 1869; and General Serrano was appointed regent of the Spanish kingdom until a king should be chosen. General Prim was placed at the head of the Ministry.

**Carlist
Insurrection
in
Spain.**

In August, 1869, an insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the north-eastern part of Spain; but it was promptly suppressed by the government troops. A republican insurrection in the following month, September, 1869, was also crushed, after the cities of Valencia and Saragossa, where the republicans had determined to make a desperate stand, were taken, after furious assaults and sanguinary fighting in the streets.

**Claimants
for the
Spanish
Throne,**

Señors Emilio Castelar, Estanislao Figueras, Francisco Salmeron, Nicholas Salmeron, Pi y Margall and other republican leaders desired a Spanish republic; but the majority of the Spanish nation preferred a liberal constitutional monarchy. The various claimants for the Spanish throne were the Duke of Montpensier; the younger Don Carlos, a grandson of the elder Don Carlos, the deposed queen's uncle and competitor; and Alfonso, Prince of Asturias, the fallen queen's son, in whose favor his mother abdicated in June, 1870. These were all rejected by the Spanish Cortes, which elected Prince Frederick of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. When this prince transferred his claims to his son Leopold the Emperor Napoleon III. objected; and Leo-

pold's candidacy led to the Franco-German War, whereupon the Hohen-zollern prince declined the proffered honor, July, 1870.

On the 17th of November, 1870, the Spanish Cortes, by a vote of one hundred and ninety-one against one hundred and twenty, elected the Duke of Aosta, son of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, King of Spain, with the title of AMADEUS I. In the beginning of January, 1871, the newly-elected king made his entrance into Madrid and took the oath to support the new constitution of the Spanish nation.

King
Amadeus
of Spain,
A. D.
1870-
1873.

Strong opposition to the new king was manifested by the Spanish republicans and also by the Carlists; and General Prim, the ablest of Spanish statesmen, was bitterly hated by the republicans, many of whom regarded him as the chief obstacle in the way of the establishment of a Spanish republic. As General Prim was returning from the Cortes on the night of the 27th of December, 1870, eight shots were fired at his carriage by a party of assassins in the streets. The general was wounded in three places and died on the 31st. The death of Prim produced a profound sensation of grief in Madrid and throughout Spain, and great popular indignation was manifested against the assassins. The Cortes adopted a resolution in honor of the memory of the great statesman, declaring that the deceased deserved well of his country, and placed his family under the protection of the nation.

Assassin-
ation of
General
Prim.

An Œcumenical Council representing the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world convened at the Vatican, in Rome, December 8, 1869. After long and deliberate sessions, this ecclesiastical assemblage reaffirmed the doctrine of the Pope's infallibility in matters of faith and morals. All the members of the Roman Catholic Church were required to accept this doctrine as an article of faith on penalty of eternal damnation, and the Church accepted the doctrine without hesitation and without question.

Œcu-
menical
Council
at Rome.

France had made great gains in material prosperity since the establishment of the Second Empire under Napoleon III. The eighteen years of this Emperor's reign were the most prosperous period that the French nation ever had experienced. The Emperor's administrative talents were surpassed only by those of his illustrious uncle; and under his liberal policy French commerce was carefully built up, the railway system of France was extended and the manufacturing and mining interests of the country were expanded. The chief cities of France were enlarged, improved and beautified; and Paris became the most splendid of European capitals.

France's
Material
Prosper-
ity.

All this was accomplished by means of an immense expenditure of money, but the heavy taxation of the French people was only a small price of what they were obliged to pay for the remarkable prosperity

Its Cost.

of the nation. In other respects the Emperor Napoleon III. fell short of what he might have accomplished for his subjects. The mass of the French people were left in ignorance. Education was left under the baleful influence of the Roman Catholic priesthood; and free thought was discouraged, if not repressed, wherever it manifested itself.

**Domestic
Policy of
Napoleon
III.**

The Emperor Napoleon III. had written a *Life of Cæsar* in several volumes; and for ten years he had been balancing between two opposite theories of government—Cæsarism, imperialism, or personal government, and the English system of Ministerial responsibility, by which the Ministry are responsible for all the acts of the crown and are removable at any time by a “vote of want of confidence” on the part of the legislative body. Cæsarism, or imperialism, through which Napoleon III. had undertaken to “guarantee order to France,” could be maintained only by a succession of French victories on the battlefield or by a commanding attitude in European diplomacy.

**Growing
Opposi-
tion to
His Rule.**

As early as 1863 many opposition members were elected to the Corps Legislatif, and among them were such able statesmen as Louis Adolphe Thiers and Jules Favre. As the Emperor grew feebler toward the close of his reign, in consequence of failing health, he became incapable of giving the same attention to public affairs that he had previously given; and the affairs of state passed into weak and incompetent hands, while the opposition to his system of personal government grew stronger. To conciliate the anti-imperialists, the Emperor ordered the French Senate to prepare a new constitution embodying the principal features of representative government.

**New
French
Constitu-
tion.**

The new constitution was promulgated August 15, 1869, the centennial of the birth of Napoleon I.; but the Emperor's illness, the absence of the Empress Eugenie and her son in Corsica and the death of Marshal Niel two days before cast a gloom over the day which accorded well with the prophecies that the year 1869 would prove fatal to the Bonaparte dynasty.

**Its
Adoption
by the
French
People.**

Under the new representative constitution Emile Ollivier was ordered to form a responsible Ministry, and this Ministry included several men of high character who had opposed the Coup d'Etat and imperialism. The new system was submitted to a *plebiscite*, or vote of the French people, May 8, 1870, and was sustained by an overwhelming popular majority, though one-sixth of the army voted against it. The official journals of France had declared very industriously that the “Empire is peace” and that the result of a rejection of the new constitution would be a war with Germany for the Rhine frontier; but events soon showed that the reverse was the case, as we shall see in a subsequent section.

(A. D. 1858-1872).

**Jews
Admitted
to Par-
liament.**

Lord
Palmer-
ston's
Peace
Policy.

Case
of the
Civil
War
in the
United
States.

The
Royal
Family.

Saxon and Norman and Dane are we,
But all of us Danes in our welcome to thee,
Alexandra."

Lord John
Russell's
Liberal
Ministry.

tria in the summer of 1866. But Lord John Russell did not pursue Lord Palmerston's home policy of political inaction. He had long striven to accomplish a further reform of Parliament in the direction of a more popular representation in the House of Commons. A Reform Bill, which he introduced into Parliament, was, after much discussion, rejected by the House of Commons, June 18, 1866; whereupon the Ministry resigned. This result produced much excitement and dissatisfaction throughout England. Immense Reform demonstrations were made in various parts of the kingdom, and in some of the principal cities serious riots occurred.

Rejection
of His
Reform
Bill.

Lord John Russell's Liberal Ministry was succeeded by a Tory, or Conservative Ministry under the Earl of Derby, with the Right Hon. Benjamin Disraeli, of Hebrew descent, as Chancellor of the Exchequer and therefore leader in the House of Commons. But Lord Derby found himself obliged to introduce a far more radical Reform Bill than the one whose failure had caused Lord John Russell's resignation. This sweeping measure of Reform extended the borough franchise to all rate-payers and to all lodgers occupying rooms of an annual rental of ten pounds sterling; reduced the county franchise to twelve pounds sterling, and withdrew thirty-three members from the English boroughs, transferring twenty-five of them to English counties and assigning eight to Scotland and Ireland. This *Second Reform Bill* was finally passed by both Houses of Parliament in August, 1867, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent on the 15th of that month; thus making the right of suffrage almost universal by creating three hundred thousand new voters and extending the elective franchise to large numbers of workingmen.

Passage
of His
Reform
Bill of
1867.

Dominion
of
Canada.

In the meantime measures had been undertaken for the confederation of the British provinces of North America. The province of Canada took the initiative in the scheme, which was pushed forward with vigor and ability. Delegates appointed by the legislative assemblies of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick met in London, December 4, 1866, to arrange the terms of the confederation. The task was accomplished. A bill creating the provincial union, styled the *Dominion of Canada*, was introduced into the British Parliament, February 7, 1867; and, after passing both Houses, this bill became a law upon receiving the royal assent, March 29, 1867. On May 22, 1867, Queen Victoria issued a proclamation appointing July 1, 1867, as the day from which the Dominion of Canada was to date its existence. By this measure the new confederation of British provinces received the right of self-government. The crown appoints the Governor-General of Canada, but the Canadian people or their chosen delegates fill all the other offices in the Dominion. Thus Canada, while



GOVERNOR GENERAL LORDS RAYNE OF CANADA

constituting an important part of the British Empire and owing allegiance to the British sovereign, is practically independent of Great Britain. Besides the Dominion government at Ottawa, the Dominion capital, each province has its local government consisting of a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislature and is independent in the management of its local concerns. In 1870 the new province of Manitoba and the North-west Territories were purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company and were annexed to the Dominion. In 1871 British Columbia joined the Dominion, and Prince Edward's Island did the same in 1873. The large island of Newfoundland is the only British North American province that has not yet entered the Canadian Dominion.

For several years, 1865-1867—during the Liberal Ministry of Lord John Russell and the Conservative Ministry of Lord Derby—an Irish organization, known as the *Fenian Brotherhood*, revived the agitation for Irish independence; and Great Britain was obliged to maintain a military and police force of thirty thousand men in Ireland to suppress Fenian outbreaks. The Fenians committed many outrages, resorting to murder and to the use of nitro-glycerine to blow up buildings; and the British Parliament passed a new coercion bill to suppress outrages in Ireland. The Fenian Brotherhood had been organized in America by John O'Mahoney, one of the associates of William Smith O'Brien, Thomas Francis Meagher, Richard O'Gorman and others in the Irish Rebellion of 1848. The Fenian conspiracy in Ireland was directed by James Stephens. As usual, there were Irish traitors who turned informers, disclosing the plans of the Fenian conspirators to the British authorities. The *Irish People*, the newspaper organ of the Fenian Brotherhood, was suppressed by the British authorities in September, 1865. Luby, O'Leary and O'Donovan Rossa were arrested. Rossa was elected to Parliament for Tipperary in 1867. Fenian outbreaks in February and March, 1867, in Counties Kerry, Limerick and Tipperary were easily suppressed.

The chief event connected with the foreign policy of Great Britain during Lord Derby's Administration was the advance of an expedition under General Robert Napier into Abyssinia, late in 1867, to compel the Abyssinian King Theodore to release the British subjects whom he held in captivity because Queen Victoria would not marry him. King Theodore was defeated and killed at Magdala in April, 1868.

In May, 1868, Lord Derby was succeeded as Prime Minister by Mr. Disraeli, who dissolved Parliament in August, 1868, and ordered new elections to test public sentiment on the new question of the disestablishment of the Church of England in Ireland, which was now agitated by the Liberal party headed by the Right Hon. William

**Fenian
Agitation
and
Outrages
in
Ireland.**

**War with
Abyssinia.**

**Disraeli's
First
Conservative
Ministry.**

Ewart Gladstone and the Quaker statesman John Bright. The result of the enfranchisement of the working classes was seen in the Parliamentary elections in November, 1868, which resulted in overwhelming majorities for the candidates of the Liberal party, the aggregate popular majority for that party being about three hundred thousand, while the Liberals had a majority of over a hundred members in the new House of Commons.

Liberal
Victory
in the
Election
of 1868.

Glad-
stone's
First
Liberal
Ministry.

Mr. Disraeli and his colleagues resigned early in December, 1868, and a Liberal Ministry headed by Mr. Gladstone came into power. Mr. Gladstone's Ministry comprised every section and element of the Liberal party and included such able statesmen as John Bright, Robert Lowe, William E. Forster and Sir William Vernon Harcourt among its members. The strength and vigor of the new Administration was shown by a succession of great measures of reform, which were carried through successfully.

Disestab-
lishment
of the
Anglican
Church in
Ireland.

Mr. Gladstone first applied himself to allaying the chronic discontent in Ireland, and the great measure of his Administration was the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland. A disestablishment bill, which encountered the most strenuous opposition on the part of the aristocratic Tories in the House of Lords, was finally passed in August, 1869, when the House of Lords yielded to public sentiment as expressed by the press of England; and the bill became a law upon receiving the royal assent on the 26th of that month, August, 1869; thus removing a great grievance on the part of the vast Catholic majority of the people of Ireland, who hitherto had been forced to contribute to the support of a Church with which they did not commune.

Irish
Land
Act of
1870.

Mr. Gladstone settled the agrarian troubles in Ireland for the time by the *Irish Land Act* of 1870, which was passed by Parliament after considerable discussion and received the royal assent and which established a modified tenant-right in every part of Ireland; thus partially removing another grievance of the Irish people.

Glad-
stone's
Other
Reforms.

Mr. Gladstone appeased the Nonconformists, or Dissenters, by the abolition of compulsory church-rates in 1868 and by the abolition of all tests for admission to offices or degrees in the universities. He also undertook important reforms in the management of the British navy; and he carried into effect a plan for the entire reorganization of the British army, after putting an end to the sale of military commissions—a usage which he ended by inducing the queen to cancel the royal warrant legalizing the sale of army commissions, July, 1871, amid the chagrin and dismay of Mr. Disraeli and his Tory followers, who had violently opposed Mr. Gladstone's bill for that purpose, but who did not dare to accept his defiant challenge to a vote of confidence.

Upon the passage of the Second Reform Bill, in 1867, the Right Hon. Robert Lowe, one of the leaders of the Liberal party and one of the great English statesmen of the time, remarked: "Now England must educate her masters." Mr. Gladstone and the other members of his Ministry recognized the fact so tersely expressed by Mr. Lowe. Accordingly Mr. Gladstone furthered the cause of popular education by the introduction of a bill which he carried through Parliament in 1870, providing for the establishment of school boards in every district of the kingdom and for their support by local taxation.

**Popular
Education.**

Mr. Gladstone carried a radical measure of Parliamentary reform by securing the passage of the Secret Ballot Act by Parliament in 1871, thus enabling voters to cast their suffrages by means of secret ballots instead of by open voting as hitherto.

**Secret
Ballot
Act.**

In 1871 the British Empire was enlarged by the purchase of part of the island of New Guinea, in the East Indies, and the Gold Coast of Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, from Holland; and early in 1874 the Feejee Islands, in the South Pacific, were also annexed to the British dominion with the consent of the natives.

**New
Guinea
and the
Feejee
Islands.**

The British occupation of the Gold Coast of Western Africa led to a war with the negro King of Ashantee, who had received a stipend from the Dutch when they occupied the Gold Coast and who demanded the same payment from the British since their occupation of that district in 1872. The British authorities at Cape Coast Castle refused to pay such stipend and demanded that King Coffee Calcalli should withdraw his Ashantee warriors from the British territories on the Gold Coast, but the King of Ashantee refused to comply with this demand. In August, 1873, Mr. Gladstone's Ministry sent a military expedition under General Sir Garnet Wolseley to invade the negro kingdom of Ashantee, for the purpose of compelling King Coffee Calcalli to withdraw his negro warriors from the British territories on the Gold Coast. After losing many men from the unhealthiness of the climate and after numerous victories over the Ashantees, Sir Garnet Wolseley stormed and took Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, early in February, 1874, and compelled King Coffee Calcalli to accept the British conditions of peace and to agree to respect the British possessions on the Gold Coast, thus giving peace and protection to the English settlements in that quarter.

**War
with the
Ashan-
tees.**

The magnitude and rapidity of Mr. Gladstone's reforms finally alarmed the British nation and produced so rapid a reaction in public sentiment that the House of Commons, in January, 1874, rejected his bill for the organization of university education in Ireland. Thereupon Mr. Gladstone felt himself constrained to consult public opinion by a dissolution of Parliament. The elections in February, 1874, re-

**Conserv-
ative
Victory
in the
Election
of 1874.**

**Disraeli's
Second
Conserv-
ative
Ministry.**

turned an overwhelming Tory, or Conservative majority in the new House of Commons; whereupon Mr. Gladstone and his fellow Ministers resigned, after a tenure of office of more than five years; and a Conservative Ministry under Mr. Disraeli came into power, remaining in office for the next six years, 1874-1880, during which he recovered Great Britain's former prestige by his vigorous foreign policy.

**John
Mitchel
in 1875.**

Early in 1875 John Mitchel, who, as editor of the *United Irishman* newspaper during William Smith O'Brien's rebellion in 1848, had been sentenced to banishment with William Smith O'Brien, Thomas Francis Meagher, Richard O'Gorman and other Irish rebel leaders, was elected to Parliament for Tipperary, but was not allowed to take his seat, as he had been sentenced to lifelong banishment. John Mitchel had been a rebel against the United States government as well as against the British government, having become identified with the Confederate side during the Civil War of 1861-'65, when he edited a Confederate newspaper at Richmond, Virginia, the Confederate capital, and having been held as a prisoner for a short time by the United States authorities in the spring of 1865.

**Plimsoll
and the
Merchant
Shipping
Bill.**

The first important event of Mr. Disraeli's Administration was the passage of a Public Worship Regulation Bill by Parliament in the spring of 1874. In the spring of 1875 a Merchant Shipping Bill was introduced into Parliament for the protection of the lives of sailors by preventing ship-owners from floating unseaworthy vessels. The Ministry announced a postponement of the measure in the House of Commons, whereupon Mr. Plimsoll arose and denounced those who exposed the lives of seamen in worthless ships as "scoundrels." This created quite a scene, and the Speaker called upon Mr. Plimsoll to withdraw the offensive expression, but Mr. Plimsoll angrily retired from the House instead. Upon resuming his seat the next day he made a qualified apology. This incident had the effect of rousing public sentiment, and public meetings were held which sustained Mr. Plimsoll and demanded the speedy passage of the Merchant Shipping Bill. The public press voiced the sentiment of the English people; and Parliament was obliged to pass the measure without delay, thus protecting the lives of seamen against unprincipled ship-owners, who were willing to expose them to watery graves for the sake of getting the insurance on unseaworthy vessels.

**Suez
Canal.**

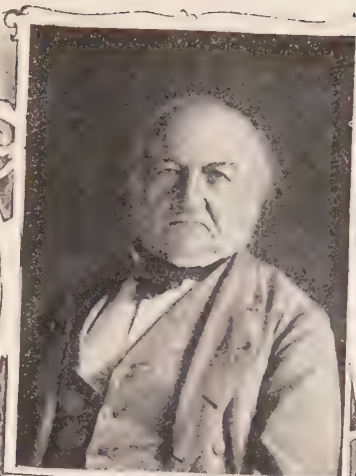
In the fall of 1875 the British government purchased a two-thirds' interest in the Suez Canal, thus securing control of that great highway to India.

**Govern-
ors-
General
of British
India.**

In 1858 Lord Elgin became Governor-General of British India, and in 1863 he was succeeded by Lord Lawrence. Lord Mayo became Governor-General in 1868, but was assassinated in 1872 and was suc-



SIR CHARLES DILKE



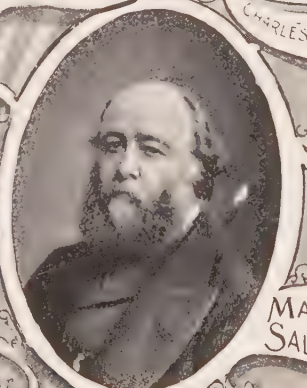
WILLIAM E. GLADSTONE



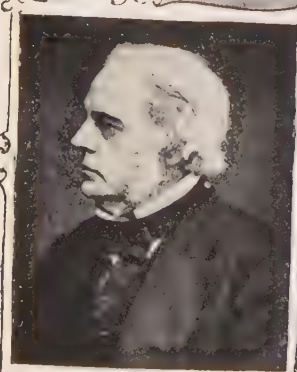
CHARLES S. PARNELL



THE RIGHT HON.
VISCOUNT
PALMERSTON.



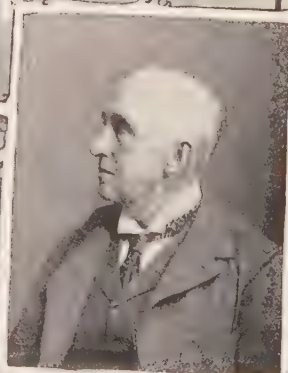
MARQUIS OF
SALISBURY



THE RIGHT HON.
JOHN BRIGHT



LORD BEACONSFIELD



LORD RUSSELL

ENGLISH STATESMEN

ceeded by Lord Northbrook. In 1876 Lord Lytton became Governor-General.

In 1874 the British authorities in India caused the Guikwar of Baroda, a native Hindoo prince, to be deposed for his oppression of his subjects and for his disregard of his engagements with the British Indian government. In the fall of 1875 the British became involved in hostilities with some of the natives of Malacca, but the hostile tribes were soon reduced to submission.

During the years 1873, 1874, 1875 and 1876 a large portion of India was ravaged by a terrible famine. The Anglo-Indian government exerted itself to its utmost to relieve the suffering, but the distress was so widespread and extensive that these exertions were only partly successful. In the fall of 1875 the Prince of Wales visited India and was welcomed everywhere with great cordiality and imposing demonstrations. The expenses of this visit were enormous and were paid by the British government.

Parliament passed an act in April, 1876, conferring upon Queen Victoria the title of *Empress of India*; and this act became a law upon receiving the royal assent, May 2, 1876. The new title was very unpopular with the British press and people. In August, 1876, Mr. Disraeli was rewarded for this service to Her Majesty by being raised to the House of Lords with the title of Earl of Beaconsfield. On the 1st of January, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at Delhi with great pomp; the ceremonies being conducted under the auspices of the Governor-General, Lord Lytton, in the presence of people from various parts of India.

Gwikwar
of
Baroda.

War in
Malacca

Famine
in India

Prince of
Wales's
Visit to
India.

Queen
Victoria,
Empress
of India.

Disraeli,
Earl of
Beacons-
field.

SECTION VIII.—FRANCO-GERMAN WAR AND ITS RESULTS (A. D. 1870-'71).

NAPOLEON III. had viewed the rapid growth of Prussia under the able statesmanship of Count von Bismarck with open distrust, and the brilliant triumph of that power in the Seven Weeks' War had alarmed him. The Emperor of the French had long foreseen that a conflict between France and Prussia was inevitable; and Bismarck was well convinced that the unity of Germany could not be accomplished without a struggle with France, whose traditional policy toward Germany was a hankering for the boundary of the Rhine.

In August, 1866, immediately after the Peace of Prague between Austria and Prussia, Napoleon III., through his ambassador at Berlin, Count Benedetti, demanded the cession of the German territory on the west side of the Rhine to France as a compensation for the increased

Napoleon
III. and
Count
von Bis-
marck.

Demand
of Napo-
leon III.
for the
Rhine
Frontier

power of Prussia. In reply to the French Emperor's demand for the Rhine frontier as the "natural boundary" of France, Bismarck pronounced the claim "inadmissible"; whereupon Napoleon III. immediately withdrew the claim.

His
Designs
on
Belgium.

Count Benedetti then presented the French Emperor's scheme for the annexation of Belgium to France, in return for which France would support Prussia in the subjection of South Germany to that power. The Prussian Prime Minister gave no reply to this proposition, but laid the draft of the proposed treaty, in the French ambassador's handwriting, among the Prussian archives for future use.

Threat-
ened
Franco-
Prussian
Rupture
over
Luxem-
burg.

In the spring of 1867 the Emperor of the French quietly attempted to purchase the Duchy of Luxemburg from the King of Holland, who was very anxious to sell that province, as he was always in need of money and as the province was of little value to him. But Bismarck foiled the scheme by claiming Luxemburg as a part of Germany and placing a Prussian garrison in it. The North German Confederation protested against the proposed sale of Luxemburg and prepared to support her protest by force of arms. It appeared likely that the affair would result in war between France and Prussia; but this danger was averted by a conference of the Five Great Powers at London, in May, 1867, which settled the question by separating Luxemburg from Germany, forming it into a neutral state and guaranteeing its neutrality.

Growing
Ani-
mosity of
France
and
Prussia.

These repeated diplomatic failures seriously injured the prestige of France, which had held the first place among the European powers since the War of Italian Nationality in 1859. The Emperor Napoleon III. was intensely mortified by his successive diplomatic defeats, and Prussia's influence was vastly raised by Bismarck's firmness on these occasions. Great ill-feeling thereafter existed between France and Prussia, and a considerable party in France was anxious for immediate war with Prussia; but the French Emperor wisely disregarded their clamors for the time, well knowing that a complete rearming of the French army was necessary before he could be able to cope with Prussia on the battlefield. The Seven Weeks' War of 1866 had clearly demonstrated the superiority of breech-loading firearms, as the Prussian needle-gun had won the great and decisive victory over the Austrians at Sadowa; and, as it was believed that a struggle with Prussia was inevitable, the reorganization and reëquipment of the French army was pushed with vigor, the troops being armed with the breech-loading chassepot rifle.

At the beginning of July, 1870, General Prim, the Prime Minister of Spain, with the consent of Serrano, the regent of that country, invited Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a German prince

related to the King of Prussia, to become a candidate for the vacant throne of Spain. Regarding the candidature of this prince as a menace to France on the part of Spain and Prussia, the French government violently opposed the project; and the Duke de Gramont, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, immediately informed the governments of Spain and Prussia that France would not consent to the election of a Prussian prince to the throne of Spain.

On the 5th of July, Emile Ollivier, the French Prime Minister, held a consultation with the Duke de Gramont and Señor Olozaga, the Spanish ambassador at Paris; and the result was a sharp diplomatic note to Baron Werther, the Prussian ambassador to France. Immediately after receiving the note Baron Werther started for Ems to meet the King of Prussia. General Prim refused to abandon the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern until the Spanish Cortes should have decided on the question; and the Prussian government, in reply to the diplomatic note from the French Cabinet, stated that Prussia did nothing toward obtaining the offer of the Spanish crown for Prince Leopold; that the consent of the King of Prussia to its acceptance would be given after the Spanish Cortes had acted on the question, and that if the Cortes should choose the prince to the vacant throne Prussia would support him.

At a Council of Ministers in Madrid the course of General Prim was unanimously approved and the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern was accepted. It was believed in Paris that Prim and the Count von Bismarck had for some time been secretly intriguing for the elevation of the Prince of Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne. Spain denied that she was influenced by Prussia in regard to the candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern; and Prussia declared herself innocent of all political intrigue, asserting that she had no right or inclination to dictate to Spain or to the Prince of Hohenzollern. Great Britain, Austria and Russia made vain efforts for the preservation of peace.

France was now making the most earnest military preparations, and the Garde Mobile and the Garde Nationale were put upon a war-footing. The greatest activity prevailed at Toulon, Cherbourg and other French ports; and troops were being rapidly moved eastward toward the Rhine. The Imperial Guards were placed under the command of Marshal Bazaine; and Marshal MacMahon was ordered home from Algeria, to take command of the French army which was to operate on the Rhine. Marshal Canrobert and Generals Faily and Frossard were also appointed to important commands.

On the 12th of July, 1870, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, declining to be the cause of a European war, formally with-

**Candida-
ture of
Prince
Leopold
of Hohen-
zollern-
Sigma-
ringen.**

**France's
Note and
Prussia's
Reply.**

**Course
of Spain
and
Prussia.**

**France's
Military
Prepara-
tions.**

Prince
Leopold's
Withdrawal
and
France's
Demand.

drew as a candidate for the Spanish throne. Not satisfied with the conduct of the King of Prussia in sanctioning the withdrawal of the candidacy of Prince Leopold as head of the Hohenzollern family, the French government demanded that he should do it as King of Prussia. But King William declined to do this, as he regarded such a step as inconsistent with the dignity to which Prussia was entitled as one of the first-class powers of the world. Prussian troops were now also hurried to the Rhine.

Bis-
marck's
Publica-
tion of
Bene-
detti's
Proposed
Secret
Treaty.

At this juncture Bismarck published the draft of the secret treaty which Count Benedetti had presented to him on behalf of Napoleon III. in 1866. This publication aroused great excitement and indignation toward France throughout Europe, especially in Great Britain, which had guaranteed the independence of Belgium. The British government demanded from the French Emperor the most ample guarantees for his observance of the neutrality of Belgium in his impending conflict with Prussia, and Napoleon III. found himself obliged to comply with this British demand.

French
Ambassa-
dor's
Dismissal
and Decla-
ration
of War.

On the 14th of July, 1870, Count Benedetti, the French ambassador to Prussia, demanded an audience of King William, at Ems, for the purpose of securing the perpetual renunciation of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as a candidate for the throne of Spain; but as the king refused to receive him he started for Paris; and on the following day, July 15, 1870, the French Corps Legislatif declared war against Prussia.

Prussian
Armies.

Both the French and the Prussian people were enthusiastic in support of their respective governments. All the German states rallied to the aid of Prussia, and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was ordered. The Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia was placed in command of the South German armies; while his cousin, Prince Frederick Charles, was appointed to take command of the forces of North Germany. Although King William of Prussia was the nominal commander-in-chief of the German armies, the direction of the military operations of Germany was in the hands of the skillful general, Count von Moltke. After concentrating between Mayence and Coblenz the Prussian forces were moved to the French frontier.

French
Armies.

After concentrating in the vicinity of Nancy, Metz and Thionville the French forces were moved forward to the German frontier. In the latter part of July the Emperor Napoleon III. left Paris for the seat of war and took the chief command of the French armies. The principal French armies were the Army of the Moselle, under Marshal Bazaine, in the neighborhood of Metz and Thionville; and the Army of the Rhine, under Marshal MacMahon, in the vicinity of Strass-



AT WOERTH

From the Painting by G. Bleibtreu

bourg. There was also a large army of reserves, under Marshal Canrobert, at Chalons-sur-Marne.

Toward the end of July the German troops, seven hundred thousand in number, occupied a line along the French frontier, extending from the Moselle to the Rhine. The French troops, three hundred and fifty thousand in number, were assembled at various points along the frontier, directly opposite the Prussian line. Skirmishes occurred at Saarbrücken, on the 30th of July and on the 1st of August, in which the French were repulsed; but on the 2d of August the town was captured by the French after a sharp fight. In his dispatch to the Empress the Emperor stated that the Prince Imperial had received "his baptism of fire" and that the officers shed tears at his bravery.

**Strength
of the
Armies.**

**Skirmish
at Saar-
brücken.**

On the 4th of August the frontier town of Wissembourg was captured by a part of the Prussian army under the Crown Prince Frederick William, after a spirited engagement, in which the French General Douay was killed, and eight hundred French troops were made prisoners by the Prussians. The Prussian victory at Wissembourg was followed by a general advance of the whole Prussian line into France, and the Count von Moltke immediately assumed an offensive attitude.

**Battle of
Wissem-
bourg.**

**Prussian
Advance.**

On the 6th of August was fought the battle of Wörth or Froschwiller, in which the Crown Prince of Prussia, with a large force of Prussians and Bavarians, defeated the French under MacMahon, separated them from the remainder of the French army and made four thousand of them prisoners. The total French loss was eleven thousand men, and the Prussian loss was thirty-five hundred. On the very day of the battle of Wörth, August 6, 1870, the Prussian right, under General Steinmetz, recaptured Saarbrücken, carried the heights of Spicheren after a severe struggle and completely defeated the French under General Frossard in the battle of Forbach, and afterward compelled them to evacuate Forbach, St. Avold and Thionville and took eight thousand of them prisoners. The whole French line fell back on Metz, followed by the Prussians.

**Battles of
Woerth
and
Forbach.**

When intelligence of the defeats of the French arms at Wissembourg, Wörth and Forbach reached Paris the inhabitants of that proud capital manifested the most intense indignation; and the greatest excitement and consternation prevailed. It was feared that a sudden revolution would take place and result in the overthrow of the Bonaparte dynasty.

**Dismay
in Paris.**

Bulletins were posted on the Bourse at Paris on that fatal 6th of August, 1870, announcing the annihilation of the Prussian Crown Prince's army and a glorious French victory. A swiftly-following rumor declared the bulletin a falsehood and whispered that the Ministry

**False
Bulletins
in Paris.**

had invented it for their own personal account to speculate in the public funds. Ollivier's palace was mobbed by an indignant multitude demanding correct news from the seat of war. The defeat at Wissembourg was thus far only known, but the next day the disasters at Wörth and Forbach were also announced. Thereupon the excitable Parisians were seized with the utmost despondency and held the Ministry responsible. The Empress Eugenie, as regent, convened the Senate and Corps Legislatif on the 9th, August, 1870. Ollivier's speech was interrupted by a storm of opposition, and his Cabinet at once resigned. A new "Ministry of Public Defense" was organized under Count Palikao. Marshal Lebœuf, who commanded under the Emperor, resigned; and Marshal Bazaine was made commander-in-chief of all the French armies.

Ollivier's
Fall and
Palikao's
Ministry.

Prussian
Advance.

The Prussian right and center, under General Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles, now advanced on Metz; and sixty thousand South German troops, under General von Werder, laid siege to Strassbourg. At the same time the Prussian left, under the Crown Prince, followed the shattered forces of Marshal MacMahon in the direction of Nancy. On the 13th of August, MacMahon evacuated Nancy, which was immediately taken possession of by the victorious forces of the Crown Prince, MacMahon retreating to Chalons-sur-Marne.

Battles of
Cour-
celles
Vionville
and
Grave-
lotte.

After the 1st and 2d Prussian armies had reached the Moselle, the French army under Marshal Bazaine at Metz attempted to retreat from that strong fortress on the 14th of August, but was met and defeated at Courcelles by the 1st Prussian army, under General Steinmetz, and driven back with heavy loss. On the following day, August 15, 1870, the 1st Prussian army crossed the Moselle between Metz and Thionville, to cut off Bazaine's retreat to Paris by the northern road to Verdun; while the 2d Prussian army, which had already passed the Moselle south of Metz, seized the southern road. On the 16th a fierce and bloody battle was fought at Vionville, between Metz and Verdun, in which the French were defeated by the 2d Prussian army, under Prince Frederick Charles. Bazaine's army was now in a perilous situation. On the 17th the Prussians hurried the remainder of their corps across the Moselle for the final struggle. On the 18th, August, 1870, occurred the sanguinary battle of Gravelotte or Rezonville, west of Metz, which raged for nine hours and in which Marshal Bazaine's army was again most disastrously defeated. The carnage on both sides was frightful. The battlefield and neighboring villages were strewn with dead. During this week of battles the French lost fifty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. The victorious Prussians also lost heavily. Thus every attempt at retreat which Bazaine made was defeated. He was now blockaded in the



CROWN PRINCE ALBERT OF SAXONY AT GRAVELOTTE

From the Painting by G. Bleibtreu

vicinity of Metz, with no hope whatever of extricating himself from his perilous position. All communication between him and Paris was severed, and an attempt to move in any direction would result in another disastrous defeat of his army.

While the 1st and 2d Prussian armies, under General Steinmetz and Prince Frederick Charles, were holding Bazaine fast at Metz, the Crown Prince of Prussia, with the 3d Prussian army, two hundred thousand strong, having passed Metz on the south, was rapidly advancing toward Paris by way of Chalons-sur-Marne, MacMahon with his defeated and shattered forces retreating before him. King William at length removed his headquarters from the Prussian armies near Metz to Bar-le-Duc and then accompanied the Crown Prince on his march toward Paris. In the meantime a sharp conflict occurred at Verdun between a French detachment and ten thousand German troops under the command of the Crown Prince of Saxony, and Vitry-le-Français was captured by the Prussians after a spirited engagement.

**Prussian
Advance
toward
Paris.**

At length, when MacMahon, after having evacuated Chalons-sur-Marne, on the 23d of August, and after being reinforced, attempted to fly to the relief of Bazaine near Metz, the Prussian Crown Prince, suddenly relinquishing his march toward the French capital, followed his antagonist northward toward the frontier of Belgium. MacMahon's army was also threatened by the forces of Prince Frederick Charles. There was heavy skirmishing, on the 28th and 29th of August, between the armies of MacMahon and the Crown Prince. On the 30th, August, 1870, MacMahon made a movement toward Montmedy; but his army was attacked at Beaumont, and, after a tremendous conflict, was utterly defeated and driven across the Meuse, toward the Belgian frontier, by the Prussian forces under the Crown Prince. The Prussians captured twelve cannon and thousands of prisoners. During the night both the French and Prussian armies received large reinforcements; and on the following day, August 31, 1870, the battle was renewed, and, after the most desperate fighting, the French were again disastrously defeated and driven to Sedan.

**Battle of
Beau-
mont.**

At daylight on the 1st of September, 1870, MacMahon's army, which was now reinforced, occupied a strong elevated position around the fortified town of Sedan, near the Belgian frontier. About five o'clock in the morning the Prussians commenced the great battle of Sedan by simultaneous attacks on the French front and left flank. During a great part of the forenoon the fighting was confined mainly to the artillery of both armies, but at length the firing of musketry became quite lively. About noon the Prussian infantry made a furious attempt to break the French center, but after the most desperate fighting they were repulsed. Afterward a simultaneous movement was made

**Battle of
Sedan.**

along the whole line of the Prussians, their infantry charging the French guns. After the French cuirassiers had failed in a charge on the Prussian skirmishers at the La Givonne hills, the French infantry made a desperate assault, but they also met with a disastrous repulse. At three o'clock the French line, which had thus far gallantly withstood the Prussian assaults, wavered, and soon afterward broke. The battle now became a rout. The victorious Prussians hotly pursued the French troops, who, leaving everything behind them, were fleeing in dismay from the field and throwing away their arms. The pursuing Prussians used the bayonet with terrible effect, as they were determined to cut off the French retreat toward Belgium. Night put an end to the rout and pursuit, and the broken hosts of the French army took refuge in the fortress of Sedan. The Prussians had won a brilliant victory, but at the cost of thirty thousand men in killed and wounded. The defeated French army had lost twenty thousand men. On the 31st of August and the 1st of September, 1870, Marshal Bazaine made another desperate effort to escape from Metz; but he was again defeated by Prince Frederick Charles, in the battle of Noisseville, and driven back into the fortress.

Surrender of
Marshal
Mac-
Mahon's
Army
and of
Emperor
Napoleon
III.

On the 2d of September, 1870, the French army under Marshal MacMahon, then numbering one hundred and eight thousand men, and being entirely surrounded at Sedan, without any hope of escape whatever, was surrendered prisoners of war to King William of Prussia, by General Wimpffen, instead of Marshal MacMahon, who was severely wounded. The Emperor Napoleon III., who had been with MacMahon at Sedan, but who then held no command in the army, surrendered himself a prisoner to King William. In his letter to the King of Prussia proposing surrender the French Emperor said: "As I cannot die at the head of my army, I come to lay my sword at the feet of Your Majesty." As soon as it was known in the Prussian army that Napoleon III. was a prisoner to King William the cry ran along the lines: "*Der Kaiser ist da!*"—"The Cæsar (Emperor) is here!" The Prussian bands struck up the air, *Die Wacht am Rhein*—"The Watch on the Rhine."

Captivity
of
Napoleon
III.

The King of Prussia treated his imperial captive with great courtesy and generosity, and allotted to him the castle of Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, for a residence during his captivity in Germany. Thus, five weeks after the commencement of hostilities at Saarbrücken, the military power of France was thoroughly broken. The imperial career of Napoleon III. had now ended, and the Second French Empire had received its death-blow.

When intelligence of the capitulation of MacMahon's army at Sedan and the surrender of the Emperor spread through Paris the excitement

of the people of that city became almost indescribable. The streets were filled with excited crowds, who demanded the dethronement of the Bonaparte dynasty and the establishment of a new French Republic. A stormy scene took place in the Corps Legislatif. On Sunday, September 4, 1870, the French capital was in revolution. The popular agitation gradually became greater, and at length unparalleled excitement prevailed throughout the city. The Place de la Concorde was one mass of human beings, and the Boulevards were impassable on account of the immense crowds assembled there. The National Guards, however, succeeded in preserving order. The soldiers and National Guards fraternized with the people, singing the *Marseillaise* and wildly shouting: "Vive la Republique!" The Corps Legislatif was surrounded by hundreds and thousands of excited Parisians, who demanded the deposition of the Bonapartes and the establishment of a republic.

The Senate was suppressed and the Corps Legislatif dissolved, after proclaiming, by a unanimous vote, that the Bonaparte dynasty had forfeited the Crown of France. The Republican members of the Corps Legislatif then proceeded to the Hôtel de Ville, where they proclaimed France a Republic. A provisional government, entitled the *Government of National Defense*, was immediately organized, consisting of eleven persons—Emanuel Arago, Emanuel Crémieux, Jules Favre, Jules Ferry, Jules Simon, Leon Gambetta, Garnier Pages, Ernest Picard, Henri Rochefort, Glais Bizoin and Eugene Pelletan—all representatives of Paris. The Parisians were wild with joy at the dethronement of the Emperor and the inauguration of the new Republic. They embraced each other and wept for joy. The Paris mob, which again ruled supreme, was destroying in spite and fury. All signs having imperial arms and medals were torn down. The mob invaded the great palace of the Tuileries, tore down the throne, destroyed everything marked with the imperial insignia and carried away and cast into the river Seine all the busts, statues and pictures of the Bonaparte family.

On the following day, September 5, 1870, the provisional government issued a proclamation announcing that a Republic had been proclaimed at the Hôtel de Ville. The provisional government also decreed that the Corps Legislatif was dissolved and the Senate abolished, and accorded full amnesty for all political crimes and offenses against the Empire. This sudden and remarkable revolution was accomplished without the sacrifice of a single life. The greatest enthusiasm prevailed throughout France, and the people of the departments everywhere accepted the Republic. The Empress Eugenie had fled from Paris and gone to England. The government of the United States promptly recognized the new French Republic.

Paris
Revolution of
September 4,
1870.

Third
French
Republic
Pro-
claimed.

Peaceful
Character
of the
Revolution.

German
Advance
on Paris.

After the surrender of MacMahon's army and of the Emperor Napoleon III. at Sedan, the Crown Princes of Prussia and Saxony, accompanied by King William, the Count von Moltke and the Count von Bismarck, marched against Paris, at the head of four hundred thousand German troops. The fortified town of Laon surrendered to the Prussians on the 10th of September; but the citadel was treacherously blown up, killing several hundred French and German soldiers. The immense German armies upon their arrival before Paris, about the middle of September, 1870, prepared for a vigorous siege of that great capital.

Unsuccessful
Efforts
for
Peace.

After the establishment of the Government of National Defense in Paris, on the 4th of September, energetic efforts on the part of France were made for peace with Germany. The venerable statesman and historian, Louis Adolphe Thiers, made a pilgrimage to London, Vienna and St. Petersburg, to secure the mediation of the British, Austrian and Russian governments; but he was unsuccessful in his efforts. The distinguished Jules Favre, the new French Minister of Foreign Affairs, visited Count von Bismarck and endeavored to procure a cessation of hostilities and the conclusion of a treaty of peace. Favre offered many humiliating concessions to Germany; but Bismarck's harsh demand that the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine should be ceded to Germany, as well as the non-existence of a permanent government in France, rendered the efforts at peace abortive; and thus this sanguinary war was left to continue. The French refused to surrender "an inch of land or a stone of a fortress."

Siege and
Capture
of
Strass-
bourg.

Soon after the German armies had entered France, sixty thousand South German troops under General von Werder invested Strassbourg, the chief city of the French province of Alsace, which was garrisoned by about twenty thousand French troops under General Uhrich. Although the city suffered heavily from the fierce bombardments which the besieging Germans opened upon it, the city being often on fire in different places and the tower of its beautiful cathedral being shattered, the garrison held out heroically for two months, refusing repeated demands for surrender and making many desperate sorties. Finally, on the 27th of September, 1870, after the garrison and the inhabitants had suffered from famine and any further defense being impossible, General Uhrich surrendered the city of Strassbourg and its garrison, then consisting of seventeen thousand men, to General von Werder. The city was immediately occupied by the conquering Germans and placed under German rule.

Investment and
Siege of
Paris.

On the 16th of September, 1870, the German armies, half a million strong, began the investment of Paris; and on the same day the city was declared in a state of siege. The headquarters of King William

were established at Ferrieres; those of the Crown Prince of Prussia at Versailles, and those of the Crown Prince of Saxony at Grand Tremblay. The French capital was garrisoned by about two hundred and thirty thousand troops, under the command of General Trochu. The Parisians were determined to defend their city to the last extremity, resolving to emulate Metz and Strassbourg. Before the siege had commenced, the city had been supplied with immense stores of provisions. Paris, surrounded by a strong wall, the enceinte, and by numerous fortifications, was impregnable to attack and could be conquered only by starvation. The principal forts defending the city—Valerien, d'Issy, Vanvres, Montrouge, Bicetre, Noissy and Rosny—were strongly garrisoned.

Numerous engagements of an unimportant character occurred around Paris during the latter part of September and throughout October. On the 30th of September a severe conflict took place between the French troops of the line and the Prussians, resulting in the repulse of the French, who took refuge behind the forts. On the 22d of October, Paris was completely surrounded by the German army of investment, about three hundred thousand strong; and the German military authorities permitted no person whatever to enter or leave the beleaguered capital. All communication between Paris and the outside world was cut off, except by means of balloons. Before Paris had been completely surrounded by the besieging Germans, some of the members of the French provisional government established themselves at Tours, while the others remained in the besieged capital. Communication between Paris and Tours was kept up by the dangerous service of balloons.

General Garibaldi and his two sons enlisted in the service of the French Republic, and Garibaldi himself was placed in command of the French Army of the Vosges, his republican sympathies having induced him to enter the service of Republican France.

In the meantime a new French army of more than one hundred thousand men had been formed on the Loire. A portion of this army was defeated by a German force under General Von Der Tann, near Orleans, on the 10th of October. The French fled in disorder, leaving ten thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious Germans. On the 12th of October the French Army of the Loire was defeated at Orleans, after nine hours' fighting. The Prussians took Orleans by storm and captured ten thousand prisoners.

On the 17th of October, Soissons capitulated to the Germans commanded by the Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, after an obstinate contest of four days and the most sanguinary fighting in the streets, no quarter being shown to the wounded, the women from the houses hurl-

**French
Repulses
and
German
Invest-
ment.**

**Garibaldi
in the
French
Army.**

**German
Victories
at
Orleans.**

**Capture of
Soissons.**

ing missiles upon the heads of the Germans and much of the city being destroyed.

**Marshal
Bazaine's
Surrender
of Metz.**

After many unsuccessful sorties and when famine had begun to threaten the army and citizens of Metz with its horrors, Marshal Bazaine surrendered the city of Metz, one of the most strongly-fortified places in the world, together with his army, then consisting of one hundred and seventy-three thousand men, and all his artillery, small arms and ammunition, to Prince Frederick Charles, on the 27th of October. This disgraceful capitulation produced the most intense indignation throughout France. Bazaine, who had never recognized the Republic, was suspected of treachery by his countrymen; and the Government of National Defense ordered the arrest of the marshal wherever found in France. King William created the Crown Prince of Prussia and Prince Frederick Charles Field-Marschals. This was the first instance of any such dignity being conferred upon any prince of the House of Hohenzollern.

**Failure of
Renewed
Efforts
for
Peace.**

In the latter part of October and in the beginning of November, 1870, in consequence of the fall of Metz, renewed efforts on the part of France were made for peace. Bismarck's firm refusal to consent to an armistice on any other basis than the cession of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, and his rejection of the proposition for the revictualling of Paris, as conditions of the proposed armistice, rendered all efforts at an armistice, as the forerunner of a treaty of peace, fruitless; and both parties determined upon the continuation of the terrible struggle.

**French
Victories
near
Orleans.**

After the German victories near and at Orleans, in October, the French Army of the Loire was gradually augmenting in numerical strength. On the 9th of November, after a severe battle of two days, the Army of the Loire, one hundred and fifty thousand strong, under the command of General d'Aurelles de Paladines, inflicted a disastrous defeat on the German forces commanded by General Von Der Tann, at Coulmiers, near Orleans, and recaptured that city. The German loss in killed, wounded and prisoners was twelve thousand men. Following up his victory, Paladines again defeated Von Der Tann at Arthenay, the next day, November 10, 1870. The defeated and shattered forces of Von Der Tann retreated hastily in the direction of Paris.

**Capture
and Re-
capture
of Dijon.**

On the 10th of November the town of Dijon, in Eastern France, which in the meantime had fallen into the hands of the Prussians, was recaptured by the French Army of the East; but on the 16th of the same month, November, 1870, Dijon was reoccupied by the Prussians in heavy force. On the 25th of November, Thionville surrendered to the Prussians, after a fierce bombardment, by which a great part of that town was reduced to ashes. Two days later, November 27, 1870,

**Capture
of Thion-
ville.**

a French force was badly beaten at Amiens by the Prussians under General Manteuffel and was driven toward Arras with severe loss.

Battle of Amiens.

On the 28th of November, after five days' fighting at Beaune de la Rolande between the French Army of the Loire and the Germans under the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg, the design of Paladines to advance to the relief of Paris was frustrated. On the 4th of December, after four days' heavy fighting near Orleans, the Army of the Loire suffered a disastrous defeat from the German armies commanded by Prince Frederick Charles and the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg. The Germans took ten thousand prisoners and reoccupied Orleans, which had been evacuated by the French. The Army of the Loire retreated southward toward Blois, closely pursued by the victorious forces of Prince Frederick Charles. On the 10th of December, after three days' fighting in the vicinity of Meung, eleven miles south-west of Orleans, the Army of the Loire was defeated by the Germans under the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg. On the 14th of December, after four days' more fighting around Beaugency, the Army of the Loire retired to Blois and Tours. General d'Aurelles de Paladines now resigned his command and retired to his estate. The French provisional government had already left Tours and had been installed at Bordeaux.

Great French Defeats near Orleans.

On the 28th, 29th and 30th of November, 1870, General Trochu made sorties from Paris on a large scale; but his assaults were repulsed by the Germans, and his troops were driven behind the fortifications of the city. On the 2d of December a French force of one hundred and fifty thousand men under General Ducrot, having been sent out of Paris by General Trochu on the preceding day, made a desperate attempt to force the German line of investment and partially succeeded, compelling the Saxons and Würtembergers, one hundred thousand in number, to fall back, after a sanguinary conflict of seven hours. Several days afterward Ducrot's force was compelled to retire back into Paris. During the Christmas holidays the weather around Paris was intensely cold, and thousands of French and German soldiers were frozen to death.

Grand Sorties from Paris Repulsed.

On the 14th of December the fortress of Pfalzburg, in the Vosges mountains, surrendered unconditionally to the Germans, who had laid siege to the place soon after the battle of Wörth. On the following day, December 15, 1870, Montmedy, near the Belgian frontier, also capitulated to a German besieging force.

Capture of Pfalzburg and Montmedy.

For several months negotiations had been in progress for a union of the South German states—Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt—with the North German Confederation. These negotiations were successfully completed in the early part of December, 1870; and, on the 9th of that month, the King of Prussia, with the desire

New German Empire under King William of Prussia.

of the German princes and people, accepted the title of *Emperor of Germany*. On the 18th of January, 1871, in the presence of all the German princes, in the Hall of Mirrors, at Versailles, in France, King WILLIAM of Prussia was formally proclaimed Emperor of Germany. Thus the long aspirations and dreams of the German people for the unity of their Fatherland were finally realized in the creation of a new *German Empire*, under the House of Hohenzollern.

Bombard-
ment of
Paris.

Having grown impatient at the lengthy duration of the siege of Paris, the Germans determined to compel the devoted capital to surrender by assault and bombardment. In the latter part of December, 1870, the besiegers opened a heavy bombardment on Fort Avron, which in consequence was evacuated by its French garrison and immediately occupied by German troops, December 30, 1870. The forts on the east and south sides of Paris were bombarded so vigorously that some of them—Forts Noissy, Rosny, d'Issy and Vanvres—were at length silenced; but they again resumed fire and replied as vigorously to the fire from the German batteries. Both the French and German armies suffered much from the severity of the season. Much damage was done to the suburban villages of Paris by the heavy fire from the German batteries; but the Parisians, although suffering greatly from the inconveniences and miseries of the siege, were as determined as ever upon defense. Thousands of balls from the German guns fell in the suburbs of Paris; creating havoc in all directions; killing men, women and children in the streets and houses; striking ambulances, hospitals, museums, public libraries, churches, school-houses and dwellings; and setting many portions of the city on fire. The horrors of the bombardment inflamed the Parisians with rage and made them more resolute than ever in their intention to resist to the utmost. On the 9th of January, 1871, a severe action occurred at the village of Clamart, in which the Prussians were victorious. On the 10th of January, General Trochu was repulsed in a sally on the north side of Paris, from St. Denis; and on the 11th an unsuccessful sortie was made on the south side, between Forts Vanvres and Montrouge. On the 19th of January a great sortie was made from Fort Valerien by General Trochu, but he was repulsed with the loss of three thousand men.

General
Chanzy's
French
Army
of the
Loire.

The French Army of the Loire under General Chanzy assumed the offensive about the beginning of January, 1871; and the Germans under Prince Frederick Charles were concentrating at Orleans, with the view of preventing Chanzy's army from advancing to the relief of Paris. A severe engagement occurred near Vendôme, on the 6th of January, between the Army of the Loire and the forces under Prince Frederick Charles, which resulted in the defeat of the French, who in consequence were compelled to retreat westward, closely pursued by

the Germans. After a series of spirited actions, Chanzy's army was driven to Le Mans, where a general battle was fought on the 11th of January. The German army under Prince Frederick Charles attacked the Army of the Loire along the whole line, carried all the French positions, occupied Le Mans and then went in hot pursuit of the defeated and fleeing hosts of General Chanzy. On the 15th, January, 1871, another battle took place, which ended in another defeat for Chanzy, who then continued his retreat westward to Laval. The loss of the Germans in these battles was only thirty-five hundred men, while they made twenty-two thousand prisoners. The Army of the Loire was now thoroughly crippled, and the last hope of the French for the relief of their capital had vanished.

In the meantime there had been great activity in the movements of the French Army of the North, commanded by General Faidherbe, which was endeavoring to coöperate with the Army of the Loire in its efforts to raise the siege of Paris. On the 23d of December, 1870, Faidherbe's army, then numbering sixty thousand men, was defeated and routed near Amiens by the Germans under General Manteuffel. At length Faidherbe's army met with some successes, which led to the concentration of the German forces in the North of France under General Manteuffel. On the 3d of January, 1871, the French Army of the North was repulsed in an attack upon a portion of General Manteuffel's army at Bapaume. After the battle Faidherbe's army hastily retreated and was vigorously pursued by the German cavalry. On the 19th of January, 1871, a severe battle was fought at St. Quentin, in which Faidherbe's army was defeated by the Germans, who lost over three thousand men, but captured four thousand prisoners. Faidherbe then retreated northward, and near the close of January he reached Dunkirk.

At the close of December, 1870, a French army of more than one hundred thousand men, under General Bourbaki, moved into Eastern France to operate against the Germans under General von Werder in the vicinity of Belfort. The Germans laid siege to Belfort, but were repulsed in an assault upon the fortifications of the town. On the 10th of January, 1871, General von Werder took Viller Exel by storm and repulsed the French in their attempts to recapture the place. On the 17th of January, after three days of severe fighting at Belfort, the French Army of the East under General Bourbaki met with a disastrous repulse, and, after a loss of eight thousand men, was compelled to retreat, closely pursued by the victorious Germans. In a series of skirmishes with the Prussians, Bourbaki's army was successful. General Manteuffel, who was now placed in chief command of the German armies in Eastern France, prepared to bring about the

**His
Defeats
in the
Battles of
Vendôme
and Le
Mans.**

**General
Faid-
herbe's
French
Army
of the
North.**

**His
Defeats
by
General
Manteuf-
fel at
Amiens,
Bapaume
and St.
Quentin.**

**General
Bour-
baki's
French
Army
of the
East.**

**His
Defeats
by
General
Manteuf-
fel at
Belfort.**

destruction of the French Army of the East. Bourbaki's defeated and shattered army retreated to Besançon, closely pursued by Manteuffel's victorious forces. These disasters to the French arms had such an effect upon the mind of General Bourbaki that he attempted suicide. After a series of engagements, lasting three days and ending on the 1st of February, on the Swiss frontier, Manteuffel captured fifteen thousand prisoners and compelled Bourbaki's army, eighty thousand strong, to retreat into Switzerland.

German
Repulse
at Dijon.

Siege and
Capture
of
Longwy.

On the 22d of January, 1871, the Prussians in large force attacked Dijon; but they were disastrously repulsed, after a severe battle of five hours, and were forced to retreat. By the 20th of January the town of Longwy, near the Belgian frontier, had been completely invested by a Prussian force. The French garrison made two successful sorties, dislodging the Prussians and silencing their batteries; but, after a furious assault and bombardment, Longwy, with its garrison of four thousand French troops, fell into the hands of the Prussians on the 25th of January.

Surrender
of Paris.

At length, after the French capital had suffered terribly from the fierce bombardment by the Germans and after famine had wrought its horrors upon the inhabitants of the beleagured city, the besieged made proposals of surrender to the besiegers; and on the 28th of January, 1871, the articles of capitulation were signed, by which the city of Paris was surrendered to the Germans and its garrison of one hundred and eighty-five thousand men under General Trochu became prisoners of war. The Germans levied a contribution of two hundred million francs upon the conquered city, and the forts around the city were immediately occupied by German garrisons. Measures were taken for the revictualling of the city under German supervision. For several weeks after the surrender, hundreds of Parisians died daily from starvation.

Armistice and
French
National
Assembly.

The fall of Paris opened the eyes of the French government and people to the hopelessness and folly of resistance to the gigantic power of Germany and made them anxious for the speedy conclusion of peace. An armistice of three weeks was signed at Versailles, on the 28th of January, by Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire, in order to allow the French people to elect representatives to a National Assembly, which should convene at Bordeaux to consider and ratify a treaty of peace with Germany. Each of the different parties in France—the Legitimists, the Orleanists, the Bonapartists and the Republicans—made great efforts for success in the election for deputies to the proposed National Assembly. The elections took place on the 8th of February and resulted in the choice mostly of Orleanists and Re-

publicans. The National Assembly convened at Bordeaux on the 15th of February, 1871; and upon its organization it unanimously chose Louis Adolphe Thiers, the distinguished historian, orator and statesman, to the office of President of the French Republic and took measures for the speedy restoration of peace.

After much negotiation, the armistice in the meantime having been extended one week, a preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Versailles, on the 26th of February, 1871, by President Thiers and Jules Favre on the part of the French Republic and by Prince Bismarck on the part of the German Empire. France was required to cede to Germany nearly the whole of Alsace, including Strassbourg, and one-fifth of Lorraine, including Metz, and to pay five milliards of francs (equal to one thousand million dollars) in three years, as indemnity for the losses sustained by Germany in the war. A large portion of the German army was to garrison a number of the French fortresses until the entire indemnity was paid, the expense of supporting this army of occupation to be paid by France; and the Emperor William and a portion of the German army were to enter Paris and occupy the Champs Elysées. On the 1st of March, 1871, the National Assembly at Bordeaux, by a large majority, ratified these terms of peace, so harsh and humiliating to France; and the great *Franco-German War* ended.

On the 1st of March, 1871, the Emperor William of Germany and thirty thousand German troops made their grand triumphal entry into the French capital. Contrary to the expectations of many, no acts of violence were committed toward them, few of the inhabitants of the city appearing in the streets. The Germans evacuated Paris two days afterward, March 3, 1871; and on the 14th the Emperor William started for Berlin, where he arrived on the 17th, March, 1871. The ex-Emperor Napoleon III. was released from his captivity at Wilhelmshöhe by the German government, on the 6th of March; whereupon he left Germany and retired to Chiselmhurst, in England, where he died on the 9th of January, 1873.

The war just closed was the greatest of modern times. During the six months that military operations were in progress nearly half a million human lives were sacrificed. The successes of Germany in this mighty conflict were among the most remarkable in the annals of war. Her armies were victorious in nearly every encounter; three of the most strongly fortified places in the world yielded to the power of her arms; three of the largest armies ever raised were compelled to lay down their arms; the proudest capital in the world was occupied by her warriors, and the once-proudest monarch in Europe was made a captive. In all, seven hundred thousand French soldiers were made

**Preliminary
Peace of
Paris.**

**German
Triumphal
Entry
into
Paris.**

**Release
of
Napoleon
III.**

**Magnitude
of the
German
Victories.**

prisoners during the war. The pride of France was thoroughly humbled, and her sword was broken.

**Definitive
Peace of
Frank-
fort-on-
the-Main.**

On the 10th of May, 1871, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Frankfort-on-the-Main, by Jules Favre and Pouyer-Quertier on the part of France and by Prince Bismarck on the part of Germany. Bismarck agreed to a reduction of the war-indemnity to be paid by France to Germany, from five milliards of francs to four and a half milliards. The French were required to restore all the German ships captured during the war or to refund their value in cash in cases in which the vessels were sold. According to this treaty the Germans were to hold only Belfort, Nancy and Longwy as hostages until the fulfillment of its conditions. This treaty was speedily ratified by the governments of France and Germany; whereupon the greater part of the German Army of Occupation evacuated France, and the French prisoners in Germany were returned to France as speedily as the railroads could transport them.

**France's
Recupera-
tion.**

So great was the recuperative power of France that she paid the war-indemnity to Germany in two and a half years, one-half a year earlier than the required time; and the German Army of Occupation evacuated France gradually as the successive installments of the indemnity were paid.

"That is the German's Fatherland
Where Hate pursues each foreign band—
Where German is the name for friend,
Where Frenchman is the name for fiend,
And France's yoke is spurned and banned—
That is the German's Fatherland!"

**Italian
Move-
ment on
Rome in
Septem-
ber, 1870.**

When the Second French Empire had received its death-blow by the catastrophe of Sedan, at the beginning of September, 1870, the King of Italy felt himself freed from all obligations entered into with Napoleon III. At the same time there was much political agitation in Italy, and fears of a republican rising were entertained by the Italian government. When intelligence of the Paris Revolution of September 4, 1870, and the proclamation of the Third French Republic had reached Florence, King Victor Emmanuel and his Cabinet resolved upon the military occupation of Rome and the annexation of the papal territory to the Kingdom of Italy. The King of Italy was compelled to take this step by the ardent wishes of his subjects, and any refusal or delay on his part to comply with their wishes would have cost him his crown. The people of the Pontifical States also petitioned the King of Italy to occupy Rome.

On the 12th of September, 1870, an Italian army of four thousand men under General Cadorna marched into the papal territory. Gen-



From Stereographs, copyright 1900 by Underwood & Underwood

ROMAN RUINS

Upper Section: Basilica of Constantine

Lower Section: Temples of Vesta, Julius Cæsar and Antoninus and Faustina

eral Cadorna issued a proclamation to the Roman people, assuring them that he did not bring war to them, but peace and order, and that the independence of the Holy See would not be molested. There was great enthusiasm among the Italian troops and people; and, as the troops advanced toward Rome, the people everywhere fraternized with them and received them with acclamations. The ultimatum of the Italian government stripped the Pope of his temporal power, but permitted him to remain in Rome as the Head of the Roman Catholic Church and left him in possession of the Vatican and of the quarter called the Leonine City. King Victor Emmanuel issued a proclamation to the Romans, declaring that peace, order and self-government, and not war, were brought by the Italians. The Pope protested to the foreign ambassadors in Rome against the Italian occupation of the papal dominions; but, anxious to avoid bloodshed, he also ordered a cessation of all resistance on the part of the papal troops.

The siege of Rome by the Italian army under General Cadorna commenced on the 19th of September, 1870; and on the following day the papal troops, nine thousand three hundred in number, surrendered, and the triumphant Italians entered the city and were welcomed by the Romans as liberators. A plebiscite was taken in Rome a few days afterward, resulting in a unanimous vote in favor of the annexation of the Eternal City to the Kingdom of Italy. All political prisoners in the papal territories were immediately set free, and a provisional government was organized by General Cadorna. The King of Italy visited Rome in the early part of December, 1870.

**Surrender
of Rome.**

**End
of the
Pope's
Temporal
Power.**

On the 3d of July, 1871, King Victor Emmanuel and his Ministers, also the foreign embassies to the Italian government, removed from Florence to Rome, which then became the capital of a united Italy. Thus was accomplished the result for which Mazzini, Garibaldi and the party of Young Italy had labored for forty years; and the great Franco-German War effected the final unification of Italy as well as that of Germany, thus ending forever the Pope's temporal power, which began when Pepin the Little, founder of the Carolingian dynasty of Frankish monarchs, bestowed Rome and its adjacent territory on Pope Stephen II. in A. D. 752.

**Rome
Made the
Capital
of Italy.**

Italy's progress since 1870 has been marked. She has fairly entered upon her great career of prosperity as a unified nation, and has already experienced the good effects of personal liberty and constitutional government. Her resources are being rapidly developed, and she has assumed her true position as the Sixth Great Power of Europe. On December 26, 1870, the tunnel through Mont Cenis was completed, thus piercing the great barrier of the Alps and giving Italy direct railway communication with France and the rest of Europe.

**Italy's
Progress.**

Prince
Gortscha-
koff's
Circular.

In November, 1870, while the Franco-German War was desolating Northern France, Europe was threatened with a far more terrible war by the action of Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, who took advantage of the situation to issue a circular to the other Great Powers demanding a modification of the Treaty of Paris in 1856, which ended the Crimean War. As France was so weakened by her reverses in her struggle with Germany, she was unable to support Great Britain in upholding the Treaty of Paris. Russia promptly profited by the circumstances to demand a modification of those articles of the treaty which prevented her from fortifying her ports or maintaining a fleet in the Black Sea.

London
Confer-
ence and
Treaty
of 1871.

Prince Gortschakoff's circular aroused intense exasperation and a war feeling in London, Vienna, Florence and Constantinople; and the governments of Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, Italy and Turkey were acting in perfect accord in resistance to the demands of Russia. Another war seemed imminent on the Eastern question, but the controversy was adjusted by a conference of the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers in London early in 1871. This London conference ended in a treaty, signed February 13, 1871, abrogating those articles of the Treaty of Paris in 1856 concerning the navigation of the Black Sea and Russia's right to fortify her ports; thus depriving Turkey of the protection afforded her since the close of the Crimean War. Thus the four results of the Franco-German War were the unification of Germany by the formation of a new German Empire; the unification of Italy by the annexation of Rome and the overthrow of the Pope's temporal power; the substitution of the Third French Republic for the Second French Empire, and the modification of the Paris Treaty of 1856.

SECTION IX.—RISE AND FALL OF THE PARIS COMMUNE IN 1871.

Paris Red
Repub-
licans.

No sooner was a preliminary treaty of peace between France and Germany agreed to than France began to be distracted by a fierce and bloody civil war, caused by a rebellion of the Red Republicans and Communists of Paris. For some time the Red Republicans had been quite active and engaged in revolutionary schemes. Fearing a formidable revolutionary rising, President Thiers and the National Assembly established themselves at Versailles. On the 6th of March, 1871, the revolutionists intrenched themselves in the Montmartre district with a battery of artillery; and the Thiers government brought up troops of the line to resist any attack which the insurgents might

make on the capital. The National Guards resisted the action for their disbandment, piled their arms on the Boulevards and collected in groups with discontented and angry looks.

On the 17th of March the Versailles government sent a detachment of troops and gens d'armes to occupy the positions of the mob which had been rioting for several days at Montmartre. A considerable number of cannon were removed, and the gens d'armes took four hundred prisoners. The next morning, March 18, 1871, the National Guards of Belleville and Montmartre, with many unarmed soldiers of the line, arrived on the scene and released the prisoners. A severe conflict took place in the Rue Royale. Some artillerymen and cuirassiers were surrounded by a frantic mob, who accosted them with shouts of "Go and fight the Prussians." General Faron's troops, remaining faithful to the government, cut their way through the mob by which they were surrounded, and escaped, after capturing the insurgent barricades at the point of the bayonet. Generals Lecompte and Thomas were abandoned on the heights of Montmartre and were shot in the Rue de Rosiere by their troops, who joined the insurgents of the Commune in their rebellion against President Thiers and the National Assembly.

The Central Committee of the National Guard placarded two proclamations defending their course and issued orders for the election of a Communal Council for Paris. The regular soldiers in Paris fraternized with the insurgents, who now virtually ruled the city; and mob law was completely triumphant. The bourgeoisie, or middle class, displayed perfect apathy; and no resistance was made to the insurgents. By the 20th of March, 1871, the insurgents held possession of the Hôtel de Ville, the Palais de Justice, the Tuileries and the Place Vendôme. Barricades were erected in some quarters; while Forts d'Issy, Vanvres and Montrouge were siezed and garrisoned by the insurgents, and measures were taken to insure the defense of Paris against any assault from the government forces. On the morning of the 21st, March, 1871, the insurgents at Montmartre and Belleville saluted each other with rounds of artillery; and fresh barricades were erected in the vicinity of Batignolles, in the Rue d'Amsterdam, in the Avenue Clichy and near the Great Northern Railway Station.

The greatest excitement prevailed at Versailles in consequence of the revolutionary movement in Paris, and the National Assembly soon rallied a large army under General Vinoy to its support. On the meeting of the Assembly on the 21st of March all the deputies of the Mountain were absent. Measures were taken by the Thiers government for the suppression of the rebellion, and Versailles resembled a camp. Contrary to the expectations of the Paris Reds, no successful rising of their partisans in the other large cities of France took place;

**Their
Out-
break.**

**Progress
of the
Paris Re-
bellion.**

**Ver-
sailles
Govern-
ment.**

but the departments rallied to the support of the Versailles government.

**Commune
and
Reign of
Terror
in Paris.**

The Communal elections in Paris took place on the 26th of March and resulted in an overwhelming majority for the revolutionists. The Commune was soon organized, holding its first sitting on the 29th of March. A Reign of Terror was now inaugurated in Paris, and the outrages of 1793 were repeated. The cry of the Socialists and Red Republicans was : "Death to the priests!" "Death to the rich!" "Death to the property-owners!" Aristocrats and wealthy persons were in constant danger of being dragged to the guillotine, and more than one hundred thousand of the more respectable Parisians fled in consternation from the city. Priests were arrested and thrown into prison, churches were sacked and religious service was suspended. Journals which supported the Versailles government were suppressed, and several journalists were sentenced to death. The insurgents boldly avowed their determination to march to Versailles, disperse the National Assembly, overthrow the Thiers government and establish the "Universal Republic."

**President
Thiers's
Temporizing
Policy.**

The government and the National Assembly had already collected a considerable army; but, instead of adopting prompt measures for the suppression of the insurrection, President Thiers lost much precious time by temporizing with the Paris insurgents with the view of bringing about peace without bloodshed. On the contrary, energy and resolution, but also great inefficiency, were displayed by the Paris Commune.

**Battle of
Courbe-
voie.**

At the close of March, 1871, the military forces of both parties were in motion; and on the 2d of April a spirited action, favorable to the government forces, occurred at Courbevoie. The defeated insurgents fled to the bridge of Neuilly, where they were again defeated. More than two hundred insurgents were killed and many were wounded. The insurgents who were made prisoners by the government troops were immediately shot.

**Terrible
Battle
between
Paris and
Ver-
sailles.**

On the 3d of April one hundred thousand Communists under General Bergerot and Gustave Flourens issued from Paris at the Neuilly gate and marched against Versailles. They were soon met by the Assemblyists under General Vinoy, and a furious battle ensued, which resulted in great destruction of life. Contrary to expectations of the insurgents, the garrison in Fort Valerien did not fraternize with them, but, remaining faithful to the Versailles government, suddenly opened a heavy fire upon them, producing the greatest consternation in their ranks. General Bergerot had just got out of his carriage when the vehicle was smashed to pieces by a bomb-shell. The wildest confusion ensued, and the main body of the Communist army retreated

back to Paris, but General Bergerot and thirty-five thousand men were cut off and defeated in an attempt to pass Fort Valerien. Among the killed on the side of the insurgents was the violent political agitator, Gustave Flourens. The government forces were completely victorious in this sanguinary conflict.

A night attack by the insurgents upon the bridge of Sevres was repulsed by a detachment of the Versailles army on the 5th of April. On the 6th the insurgent garrisons in Forts d'Issy and Vanvres kept up a resolute fire on the government troops at Chatillon. On the 7th the insurgents were dislodged from the bridge of Sevres, and a fierce cannonade was kept up between Chatillon and Forts d'Issy and Vanvres.

The burial of the insurgent dead in Paris on the 6th of April was an extraordinary scene. The most intense grief and indignation were manifested by the Parisians. Hundreds of women were marching along the Boulevards; and the bodies of the slain were interred in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, amid the shrieks of women and the cries of the men for vengeance on "the assassins of Versailles." Père la Chaise was thronged with people, who shouted: "Vive la République!" "Vive la Commune!"

On the 7th of April severe fighting occurred at Porte de Neuilly. The Communists at Courbevoie were dislodged by the cannons of Fort Valerien, but they rallied up the Avenue de Neuilly and opened a severe fire on the Versailles troops who appeared on the heights. The Communists were forced to retire behind the bridge of Neuilly, which they barricaded; but the pursuing Versaillists shelled and demolished their barricades. In attempting to hold the bridge the insurgent National Guards suffered severely, and, being finally compelled to retire, were closely pursued by the government troops; but the insurgent guns swept the Avenue de Neuilly and checked the pursuit. After vainly endeavoring, under protection of their artillery, to throw up barricades across the avenue, the insurgents were entirely driven out of Neuilly and found themselves obliged to take refuge behind the ramparts.

On the 8th of April there were spirited engagements at various points. Fort Valerien and the advanced government batteries fiercely bombarded Porte Maillot, many of their shells falling in the Champs Elysées. Marshal MacMahon was now invested with the chief command of the government forces. The Paris Commune was daily growing more desperate, and the most shameful outrages and revolutionary excesses were perpetrated. Additional numbers of priests and nuns were thrown into prison; and at length a demand was made on the Church for one million francs, the insurgents threatening to kill the

**Government
Successes.**

**Burial of
Insurgent
Dead in
Paris.**

**Battle of
Neuilly.**

**Marshal
Mac-
Mahon.**

**Outrages
of the
Com-
mune.**

Archbishop of Paris if the sum was not paid. The archbishop suffered the most shameful treatment from a band of infuriated Reds.

Bombardment of Paris.

There was now severe fighting under the very walls of Paris, and shells were constantly falling in the Champs Elysées. The Arc de Triomphe was struck repeatedly and much damaged. The fighting around Paris was very severe on the 15th and 16th of April. Many more of the inhabitants left the city. The insurgents erected barricades in the Place Vendôme, in the Rue Castiglione, in the vicinity of the Tuileries, at Montmartre and at Belleville, in anticipation of an attack from the government army. The Commune continued the arrests of priests, and scarcely a church in Paris now remained open.

Measures for Defense.

Insurgent Victory at Vanvres.

The government troops attacked the insurgents at Vanvres on the 15th of April, and a bloody battle ensued. The Communists, completely taken by surprise, were driven back; but they soon rallied, and, after a desperate fight, compelled the Assemblyists to retreat and regained their lost ground. During the day the conflict was several times renewed, but in the end the insurgents were left masters of their position, and the Versaillists suffered severely from the deadly fire from the insurgent garrison in Fort Vanvres. On the 17th the insurgents were again victorious, in a furious engagement at Neuilly, in which each side lost about twenty-five hundred men.

Battle of Asnieres.

On the 18th of April the insurgents were badly defeated at Asnieres. Their large defensive works were fiercely assailed by the government troops. The Communists fled across the Seine, before the heavy cross-fire from the attacking government columns. After being reinforced, the insurgents rallied and renewed the battle; but they were again defeated with heavy loss, being a second time driven across the Seine by the Versailles troops.

Extraordinary Measures of Defense.

The insurgents continued the work of fortifying Paris, and the most desperate resources were being rendered available for the defense of the city against the government forces. In various quarters barricades were erected, surrounded by broad, deep trenches, beyond which mines of powder were laid. These measures of the Communists for defense greatly terrified the people of Paris. At the Beaujeu Hospital crowds of women with streaming hair were uttering loud shrieks and demanding their husbands, brothers and children. On the 23d of April the government batteries opened a furious cannonade upon Forts d'Issy and Vanvres and the ramparts at Pont du Jour.

Terrific Bombardment of Paris.

The bombardment of Paris on Sunday night, April 30, 1871, was fearful and apparently utterly reckless as to the amount of damage it inflicted on the city. The Parisians were greatly excited, and large crowds were assembled on the street corners discussing the alarming condition of affairs. Large bodies of Versailles troops were moved

toward Paris to reinforce the government army of investment. The insurgents at Neuilly kept up the indignation of the people of Paris by throwing petroleum shells into the city, the Parisians being led to believe that they came from the lines of the Versailles army which was besieging the city.

On the 1st of May the Clamart railway station was captured by the Assemblyists at the point of the bayonet, and about three hundred insurgents were killed in the action. On the 6th of May the insurgents were repulsed with heavy loss in a sortie from Fort d'Issy. The government army continued its approaches to the Bois de Boulogne, and on the 7th of May the Versailles batteries reopened fire on Pont du Jour and other points.

**Government
Successes.**

After many stubborn conflicts and furious assaults, Fort d'Issy was finally captured and occupied by the government forces, on the 8th of May. On the following day, May 9, 1871, the investment of Paris from Gennevilliers to Fort d'Issy by the government forces was complete; and preparations were being made for a grand assault on the city. On the 13th of May thirty thousand Versaillists were in the Bois de Boulogne, sheltered by the trenches of the besieging army. A heavy column of Communist troops which attempted a sortie from Porte Dauphine was blown to atoms by the bursting of twenty shells which came from the lines of the Versailles army.

**Capture
of Fort
d'Issy.**

**Siege of
Paris.**

After many desperate struggles and fierce assaults and bombardments, Fort Vanvres fell into the possession of the government troops, on the 14th of May; the Communist garrison having fled, by a subterranean passage, to Fort Montrouge. The government troops found sixty cannon and eighteen mortars in the fort. The approaches to the ramparts and fortifications of Paris were now actively pushed forward, under cover of a heavy cannonade; and preparations were being made by Marshal MacMahon for a grand attack on the walls, or enceinte, of Paris.

**Capture
of Fort
Vanvres.**

By the 15th of May the government troops were under the walls of Paris, exchanging shots with the insurgents, who lined the ramparts from Porte de la Meute to Porte d'Issy. Paris was now completely invested and declared in a state of siege. The Parisians were expelled from the trenches between Forts d'Issy and Vanvres. Breaches were made in the enceinte of Paris by the furious cannonade from the government guns, and the Anteuil gate was now completely destroyed. The western and south-western arrondissements of Paris were now uninhabitable, on account of the great destruction of life and property in those portions of the city. On the night of the 15th of May the Communists were repulsed with heavy loss in a sortie upon the government troops in the Bois de Boulogne, and the Versaillists

**Bombard-
ment of
the Paris
Enceinte.**

continued to fire around the ramparts from Pont du Jour to Porte Maillot.

Place
Vendôme
Column
Levelled.

At six o'clock in the evening of the 16th of May, 1871, the great Column in the Place Vendôme, which had been erected there by Napoleon I. to commemorate his great victory at Austerlitz, was levelled with the ground by the order of the Paris Commune. The Column fell at full length in the Rue de la Paix, amid the shouts of "Vive la Republique!" "Vive la Commune!" from the multitude which had assembled in the Rue de la Paix and the Rue Castiglione to witness the destruction of this monument of imperial glory.

Government
Forces in
Paris.

On Sunday night, May 21, 1871, the government troops effected an entrance into Paris through the Bois de Boulogne, when the most terrific fighting of the whole civil war commenced: and for a week Paris was one vast battlefield. On the 22d, May, 1871, the government troops under Marshal MacMahon continued pouring into the city through the Bois de Boulogne; and very soon three of the principal avenues leading to the Champs Elysées were in possession of the government forces. The Communists were now thrown into the greatest confusion. A bloody battle occurred on the same day in the Rue St. Honore, where the insurgent barricades were captured and recaptured six times. The government troops charged down the street with fury, and were fired upon from the windows of the Conciergeries. Many of the Communist barricades were captured, and the Champs Elysées were swept by the heavy fire from the Versailles artillery which was planted near the Arc de Triomphe. Many leaders of the Commune were captured, and some massacres were perpetrated. The headquarters of Marshal MacMahon were established in the new Opera House. The heaviest fighting occurred in the Rue Royale, where the slaughter was terrific. At the Tuileries ten thousand insurgents were made prisoners by the government troops under General Clinchamp.

Battles
in the
Rue St.
Honore
and Rue
Royale.

May 23.

Battle at
Mont-
martre.

At daybreak, May 23d, a terrible fire of musketry and cannon commenced in the Montmartre district; and at one o'clock in the afternoon Montmartre was captured by the government forces under Generals Clinchamp and L'Amirault. Heavy fighting occurred at the barricades in the Place de la Concorde and the Place de Clichy. The government troops under General Cissey captured the barricades in the Chaussu du Marne, in the southern part of Paris. Barricades were hastily thrown up and terrible conflicts occurred in other parts of the city. Many of the leaders of the Commune were captured and were shot on the spot, and during the battles in various quarters of the city no quarter was shown by the government forces. At the close of the day the government troops occupied the Place de Clichy, the Palais de l'Industrie, the Chamber of the Corps Legislatif, the Hôtel

des Invalides, St. Quen, the Tuileries, the Hôtel de Ville and the Place Vendôme. The Place de la Concorde was also abandoned by the insurgents. On the evening of this day Monseigneur Darboy, Archbishop of Paris, and sixty-nine priests, who had been siezed and held as hostages, were murdered by the infuriated Communists.

**Murder
of the
Arch-
bishop
of Paris.**

On the 24th, May, 1871, the Communist insurgents, in the madness of desperation and despair, perpetrated acts of vandalism almost unparalleled in the history of the world. With the intention of destroying the city they could no longer rule, the insurgents, from their barricaded positions in various portions of Paris, threw petroleum shells over the city; and fires arose in many quarters. A number of women who were detected in the act of setting fire to buildings were shot on the spot by the exasperated government troops. The most famous buildings set on fire were the palace of the Tuileries, the Hôtel of the Legion of Honor, the Hôtel de Ville and the Louvre. The fighting during the day was of the most desperate character. The streets were strewn with dead bodies, and no quarter was shown by either party. The fighting resulted in immense advantages to the Versaillists, the insurgents being driven from many of their positions.

May 24.

**Vandal-
ism
of the
Commune.**

**Fires in
Paris.**

The fighting was continued during the 25th with additional advantages to the government army. Driven from Paris proper, the insurgents, mad with rage and fury, took refuge in Belleville, the very center of the revolutionary movement and the birthplace of the great Communist rebellion. From Belleville the Communists continued to throw petroleum shells all over Paris, thus kindling additional fires in the city and destroying many public and private buildings. The whole city was wrapt in clouds of smoke, and the fires could be seen for many miles around. A great many buildings were destroyed by the explosion of mines. The Luxembourg, the Palais de la Quai d'Orsay and the Palais Royal were now also burning.

May 25.

**Insurgent
Retreat to
Belleville.**

**New
Fires.**

On the 26th a furious battle was in progress in Pantin. The capture of six thousand insurgents in the Quartier Moufflard ended the rebellion in that quarter. The government troops were severely harassed by the fire of musketry from the windows of houses. Many Communists who attempted to escape toward Pantin were hotly pursued and were slaughtered without mercy by the exasperated Versaillists. The insurgent position at Belleville was vigorously cannonaded by the government army. The insurgents were driven into the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, where they were surrounded by the government forces. The Rue Royale was destroyed by mines, and the most terrible fires were still raging in Paris. Women who were detected in pouring petroleum into cellars were shot by the enraged Versaillists. Many of the insurgent leaders—among whom were Valles,

May 26.

**Battle of
Belleville.**

**Capture
and
Death of
Communist
Leaders.**

Amoureux, Brunel, Rigault, Bousquet and General Dombrowski—were captured and shot.

May 27.

Battles of
Belleville
and
Père la
Chaise.

On the 27th occurred the most terrific fighting of the civil war. Sanguinary battles were fought at Belleville, Menilmontant and in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise. No quarter was given to man, woman or child. After a day of the most frightful carnage, the government forces captured the insurgent position at Belleville and Père la Chaise, late in the night. The most destructive fires were still raging in Paris; but soon after the arrival of the London Fire Brigade the flames were got under control, and in a few days they were entirely extinguished.

End of
the Re-
bellion.

Condition
of Paris.

On Sunday morning, May 28, 1871, the last band of insurgents surrendered unconditionally; the whole city was in the undisputed possession of the government forces; the firing ceased, and ten thousand prisoners were passing through the Rue Lafayette. The great Rebellion of Paris in 1871 had now ended. One-third of Paris was in ashes, and fifty thousand dead bodies were lying in the streets and cellars of the city. Among the slain were many women and boys who had fought in the ranks of the insurgents. The Tuileries, the Louvre, the Hôtel of the Legion of Honor, the Luxembourg, the Palais Royal, the Hôtel de Ville and the Palais de la Quai d'Orsay were wholly or partially destroyed. This brief but sanguinary rebellion, during the two months of its existence, cost the lives of sixty thousand Frenchmen. Many valuable works of art were sacrificed to the madness of the infuriated Communists. The outrages of the Communists equaled those of the Jacobins of 1793; and the names of Cluseret, Bergerot, Dombrowski, Delescluse, Assy, Piat and Rochefort deserve the same execration as those of Robespierre, Danton, Marat, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot, Fouquier-Tinville and the other Jacobin terrorists of the great French Revolution.

Paris
under
Military
Law.

Whole-
sale
Execution
of Com-
munists.

Upon the suppression of the rebellion, President Thiers appointed General Vinoy military governor of Paris, and military law was established in the city. A heavy doom was inflicted on the vanquished rebels, of whom about forty thousand were held as prisoners. Drum-head court-martial was established; from fifty to one hundred insurgents were shot at a time, and no person was permitted to leave Paris without a pass signed by Marshal MacMahon. The places of execution were the Champ de Mars, the Park de Monceaux and the Hôtel de Ville. Altogether eighteen thousand of the Communist rebels were shot after they had surrendered. In a few days after the suppression of the insurrection, all restrictions concerning communication with Paris were removed, and entrance and exit were free to all. The barricades were soon removed, and perfect order again prevailed.

The supplementary elections in France for deputies to the National Assembly, at the beginning of July, 1871, resulted in an overwhelming majority for the Moderate Republicans. Out of one hundred and five deputies chosen, there were eighty-six Moderate Republicans, thirteen Radicals, three Orleanists, two Legitimists and one Bonapartist.

Supplementary Elections.

SECTION X.—RISE AND FALL OF THE REPUBLIC IN SPAIN (A. D. 1873–1875).

FROM the moment of his accession to the throne of Spain, King Amadeus found his situation to be an unenviable one. The young sovereign was really desirous of the welfare and prosperity of his subjects, but he lacked the abilities necessary for the difficult post of a constitutional monarch. The Spanish nation was divided into numerous parties; the rebellion against Spanish power in the island of Cuba still continued, and the young king found opposition on almost every hand. The most important parties opposed to King Amadeus were the Carlists, or adherents of Don Carlos; the Alfonsists, or partisans of Prince Alfonso, the son of ex-Queen Isabella II.; the Republicans and the Radicals. The Carlists worked actively for the elevation of Don Carlos to the throne of Spain; and the Republicans, headed by Señor Castelar and Señor Figueras, did not cease their dreams for the establishment of a Spanish Republic. The throne of Amadeus was upheld only by the non-agreement of the various opposition parties—the Carlists, the Alfonsists, the Republicans, the Radicals and others.

Difficult Position of King Amadeus.

Various Opposition Parties.

From the moment of the accession of King Amadeus, in January, 1871, the Carlists and the Republicans plotted against his government; and several attempts were made to assassinate the young monarch. In June, 1872, a formidable insurrection of the Carlists broke out in the North of Spain; but after some spirited actions, in which the Carlists were defeated by the government troops, the rebellion was suppressed. Armed bands of Carlists and Republicans roamed over the northern provinces of Spain, tearing up railways and cutting telegraph wires. A Republican revolt broke out in the town of Ferrol, in October, 1872; but the insurgents dispersed on the approach of government troops. The Cuban rebellion still continued without any decisive result.

Carlist and Republican Insurrections.

Cuban Rebellion.

In the beginning of February, 1873, King Amadeus embraced the resolution of resigning his troublesome throne. The Ministry sought to dissuade the king from his purpose, but Amadeus persisted in his determination to abdicate the throne. When it became known that King Amadeus would certainly resign his crown, groups of people assembled in Madrid, and there were some attempts to create a disturb-

Abdication of King Amadeus.

ance; but these demonstrations were promptly suppressed, and the crowds were dispersed without any conflicts. The Congress, or lower branch of the Cortes, adopted a proposition that the President of that branch and fifty deputies should constitute a Permanent Committee. The Cortes assembled at a late hour on February 11, 1873, and the formal message of the king's abdication was read in each chamber separately; but upon the conclusion of the reading the Senate and the Congress met together in one chamber and constituted themselves the Sovereign Cortes of Spain. Señor Rivero, the President of the Congress, being called to the chair, declared himself ready to answer for the preservation of order and for the execution of the degrees of the supreme power. The abdication of King Amadeus was unanimously accepted by the Cortes, which then, by a vote of two hundred and fifty-nine in the affirmative and thirty-two in the negative, declared Spain a Republic. That night the streets of the Spanish capital were filled with an excited people. The Senate appointed a Permanent Committee of Thirty. Señor Melcampo and Marshal Serrano offered their support to Prime Minister Zorilla in maintaining order.

Spain
Declared
a
Republic.

Spanish
Provis-
ional
Govern-
ment
under
President
Figueras.

The Ministry of Señor Zorilla now terminated; and on the following day, February 12, 1873, the Cortes elected a new Ministry, or provisional government, of which Estanislao Figueras, the ardent Republican, was chosen President. After the members of the new government had taken their seats upon the Ministerial benches in the Cortes, President Figueras addressed the Cortes, expressing the hope that the Spanish Republic would be established forever. On the following day, February 13, 1873, the two Houses of the Cortes met in joint session, constituted themselves the *National Assembly* of Spain and proceeded to effect a permanent organization by electing Señor E. Martes President of the Assembly. The provisional government ordered the suppression of the Royal Guard. Ex-King Amadeus had already left Madrid for Lisbon, in Portugal, whence he was to be conveyed to Italy by an Italian squadron. The establishment of the Spanish Republic was celebrated in Madrid, on the night of the 14th, February, 1873, by a general illumination, on which occasion the streets of the Spanish capital were crowded with people, but there was no disorder.

Abolition
of
Slavery
in Porto
Rico.

National
Assembly
Dis-
solved.

After several months' deliberation, the National Assembly of Spain, on the 22d of March, 1873, passed, by a unanimous vote, a bill providing for the immediate abolition of slavery in Porto Rico, one of the largest of the Spanish West India Islands, and accorded to the emancipated slaves the full privileges of Spanish citizenship. After passing this important measure, the National Assembly dissolved itself by a unanimous vote, on which occasion the greatest excitement prevailed in



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THE ROYAL PALACE OF SPAIN AT MADRID

Upper: Exterior

Lower: The Throne Room

the Assembly Chamber and in the streets of the capital. On that and the following day, March 22 and 23, 1873, there were several unsuccessful revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid.

In the meantime a formidable insurrection of the Carlists had broken out in the North of Spain. The Carlists, instead of concentrating their forces, roamed over the Basque Provinces, Navarre and Catalonia in small bands and engaged in tearing up railways, burning railway stations and bridges, cutting telegraph wires and in every way interrupting communication in the northern provinces of Spain. Numerous small engagements were fought with various success between the Republican forces, headed by Generals Gonzales, Nouvillas, Cabrinity and others, and the Carlist bands, led by the Curé of Santa Cruz and by Generals Seballs, Dorregaray and Tristany, and Don Alfonso, the brother of Don Carlos. At the close of May, 1873, General Nouvillas, at the head of twelve thousand men, was holding the mountain passes of Biscay and driving the Carlists in that province toward the coast of the Bay of Biscay.

**Carlist
Insur-
rection
in the
North of
Spain.**

During the latter part of April, 1873, Madrid was greatly excited. A rising of the monarchists in that city took place on the 23d of April, beginning with the revolt of several battalions of volunteers, who fired on General Contreras. The agitation increased as night approached, and shots were fired in other portions of the city. During this time the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly held a session to consider the gravity of the situation and to deliberate upon measures for the public safety. While the committee was in session some of the rebellious volunteers entered the hall, and the committee sought safety in flight. The ultras demanded the establishment of the Commune in Madrid and engaged in hunting down the members of the Permanent Committee, several of whom were arrested and imprisoned by the infuriated insurgents; and the greatest excitement prevailed. Early in May there was a renewal of revolutionary demonstrations in Madrid. The city was placarded with numerous proclamations, urging the people to demand the immediate proclamation of the Federal Republic, the abolition of capital punishment, the abolition of the State Council and the separation of Church and State; and large Federalist meetings were held on the 5th of May, 1873.

**Insur-
rection in
Madrid.**

In the meantime elections for a Constituent Cortes had been ordered. The elections took place on Saturday and Sunday, May 10 and 11, 1873, and resulted in the choice of three hundred and ten Ministerial Federal Republicans, thirty Extreme Radicals, eight Internationalists, ten Independent Republicans and thirty Monarchists. The total number of votes cast throughout Spain was one million two hundred thousand. The vote in the capital was light, owing to the apathy of all

**Elections
in Spain.**

**Constituent
Cortes.**

parties except the Federal Republican. The Constituent Cortes assembled on the 31st of May, 1873. The session was formally opened by Señor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, with a speech in which he maintained the right of the Spanish people to choose their own form of government. The Cortes organized by electing Señor Orense, a Federal Republican, its President.

**Proclamation
of the
Federal
Democratic
Republic.**

On the 8th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a vote of two hundred and ten yeas against two nays, proclaimed the establishment of the Federal Democratic Republic in Spain, and then adjourned until evening. The session of the Cortes on the night of the 8th of June was a stormy one. Señor Figueras, President of the Spanish Republic, tendered his resignation; but, after great confusion and excitement, a Ministry proposed by Señor Pi y Margall was rejected, and the Cortes went into secret session. An excited crowd filled the streets in front of the palace, and within the Chamber the greatest agitation prevailed. Through the efforts of Castelar and Figueras, calm was finally restored in the Chamber, as well as among the populace outside. After successive fruitless attempts of Figueras, Castelar and Pi y Margall to form a new Ministry, Señor Figueras was finally prevailed upon by the Cortes to remain in power with his old Cabinet. After a vote of confidence in the Figueras Ministry, the Cortes adjourned. The proclamation of the Federal Democratic Republic was celebrated at Barcelona, on the night of the 8th of June, with illuminations and general rejoicings.

**Ministerial
Crisis.****Resignation
of
President
Figueras.**

At a Cabinet council on the 11th of June, 1873, President Figueras and his Ministers tendered their resignations, in consequence of a disagreement with the Cortes on the currency. In consequence of this Ministerial crisis, fears were entertained of a serious outbreak in Madrid. The Cortes continued in secret session on the following day, and during their deliberations a party of armed volunteers surrounded the palace of the Cortes. A large body of armed police and troops were stationed at various points throughout the city, in anticipation of an outbreak. A majority of the Cortes finally chose Señor Pi y Margall to the Presidency of the Republic, and his Ministry was immediately appointed. The excitement which had prevailed in Madrid for several days greatly subsided, and the city appeared quite calm. Señor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Constituent Cortes.

**Señor
Pi y
Margall,
President.****Disturbances
at
Barce-
lona,
Malaga
and
Seville.**

Disturbances occurred at Barcelona on the 24th of June, 1873. There was firing all that night between the soldiers and the citizens. On the following day the troops were all removed from the city, and a cordon of police was established between them and the city to prevent a further collision. On the 25th of June the populace in Malaga arose against the authorities and killed the Mayor of the city, but order was

restored in the evening. The extreme Radicals arose in Seville and barricaded the streets, but the outbreak was soon suppressed.

On the 30th of June, 1873, the Cortes, by a large majority, approved a bill granting extraordinary powers to the government to enable it to crush the Carlist insurrection. Serious apprehensions were entertained of an outbreak in Madrid against the government, and troops were placed at strategic points in the city. The Constituent Committee of the Cortes completed the draft of a Federal Republican Constitution for Spain. The Constitution provided for the division of European Spain into eleven States; and Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were to be constituted Territories of Spain. Madrid was to remain the capital. The government was to be divided into the Legislative, Executive and Judiciary Departments. The Cortes was to hold two sessions each year, and the members were to receive salaries. Senators were to be chosen by the States, and Deputies were to be elected by universal suffrage. Deputies could not act as Ministers. A President was to be elected by universal suffrage for a single term of four years.

**Extraordinary
Governmental
Powers.**

**Spanish
Republican
Constitution.**

On the 12th of July, 1873, the Internationals arose against the authorities at Alcoy, in the province of Alicante, and assassinated the Mayor of the city, although he was a lifelong Republican. His body was dragged through the streets by a mob which kept up a continuous yell. The Collector of Taxes was also assassinated, and his body was treated with the same indignities as that of the Mayor. Several factories were burned by the mob. On the 13th of July, General Velarde entered Alcoy with a strong column of government troops. The insurgents had already been reduced to submission by the Alicante militia, who took possession of the town; but the leaders of the revolt escaped.

**Out-
break at
Alcoy.**

In anticipation of the adoption, by the Cortes, of contemplated changes in the new Federal Constitution, the provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia and Catalonia rose in rebellion against the government and proclaimed their independence. Declarations of independence were issued at Seville, Cadiz and Barcelona.

**Other
Out-
breaks.**

The Communist insurgents at Cartagena, headed by General Contreras, made themselves masters of the whole city, except the arsenal. The crews of several Spanish men-of-war in the harbor of Cartagena having revolted, the Spanish government issued a proclamation declaring them pirates and authorizing their capture and treatment as such by any foreign power on the high seas; and decrees were issued dismissing General Contreras from the public service and removing the civil governors of the revolted provinces. The insurgents at Cartagena, after gaining control of the city, seized the Castillo de las Galeras, a strong fort on the west side of the harbor, less than a thousand yards

**Intran-
sigente
Insur-
rection
at Car-
tagena.**

from the entrance, which is commanded completely. This gave them control of the batteries on the shore, at the mouth of the harbor. They hoisted the red flag of the Commune over the fortifications and summoned the squadron lying in the harbor to surrender. The crews being in sympathy with the insurgents, the vessels fell into their hands without opposition. The insurgents levied a heavy contribution upon the inhabitants of Cartagena. The Communists, or *Intransigentes*, at Cartagena established a provisional government for the canton of Murcia, at the head of which was General Contreras as President.

Insurgent
Attack on
Almeria.

Contreras was in command of the insurgent fleet off Almeria. He demanded a heavy contribution from that city; and, as the city authorities refused to comply with his demand, he opened a heavy bombardment on the city. After two hours of heavy firing, the *Intransigentes* attempted to disembark, but were repulsed by the government forces and compelled to reëmbark. They afterward renewed their attack upon the city.

Resigna-
tion of
Pi y
Margall.

The numerous internal troubles of Spain caused the Cortes to demand the formation of a vigorous Ministry under Señor Nicholas Salmeron, and accordingly Señor Pi y Margall and his Cabinet resigned. On the 20th of July, 1873, Señor Nicholas Salmeron was made President of the Spanish Republic, and an able Ministry was formed. While the debate on the Ministry was going on in the Cortes, great excitement was produced by the explosion of an Orsini bomb at the door. Señor Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Cortes on the 26th of August, and on taking the chair he made a speech exhorting the Republicans to be united.

Bombard-
ment of
Valencia.

The insurgents at Valencia refused to surrender to the government troops, who thereupon opened a heavy bombardment upon the city, on the night of the 30th of July. The city was cannonaded at regular intervals, musketry firing was frequent, and there was some desperate fighting. The government troops occupied the village of Mislata, but were dislodged by the insurgent artillery; and the village was alternately taken and retaken, being set on fire by shells from the garrison in Valencia. A serious conflict took place at the village of Masannasa, near Valencia, between the government troops and the insurgents, in which one hundred and fifty men were killed. Already two hundred shells had been thrown into Valencia, and the government troops had advanced six hundred yards.

Reduction
of
Seville.

On the 31st of July, 1873, the insurgents at Seville set fire to that city in four different places by means of petroleum. The insurrection at Seville was soon suppressed, and the city was occupied by the government troops. The fires which the insurgents had kindled were extinguished. The government troops captured twenty cannon at Seville.

Early in August the government troops defeated the insurgents in a sharp fight at Malaga and drove them from the field. The town of Alhama, in the province of Alicante, proclaimed its independence; and a Junta was organized, whose first act was to levy a heavy contribution upon the citizens. The insurgents at Cadiz surrendered to the government troops under General Pavia on the 5th of August.

Events at Malaga, Alhama and Cadiz.

On the 8th of August, 1873, the artillerymen belonging to the garrison of Barcelona mutinied against their officers, but were quickly disarmed and imprisoned by the cavalry under the command of the Captain-General of Barcelona. The mutineers were court-martialed, and twelve of the ringleaders were sentenced to death and thirty to transportation to the penal colonies of Spain.

Mutiny at Barcelona.

Early in September, 1873, Socialistic troubles broke out in the province of Andalusia. In the vicinity of the town of Jimena the farm-laborers banded together for the purpose of demanding and endeavoring to enforce a division of property. They burned forty farm-houses belonging to those opposed to them and committed other excesses. Some of the rioters were arrested.

Socialist Rising in Andalusia.

The question of military executions engaged the attention of the Cortes. President Salmeron, who was opposed to capital punishment, tendered his resignation; and his Ministry retired on the 5th of September, 1873. On the 7th Señor Emilio Castelar was elected President of the Spanish Republic, and he entered on his duties with an able Ministry. The Cortes conferred on President Castelar dictatorial powers to enable him to crush the Carlist and Communist insurrections. Señor Nicholas Salmeron was elected President of the Cortes, and several weeks later the Cortes adjourned.

Salmeron's Resignation.

Señor Emilio Castelar, President.

On the 16th of September, 1873, there was a serious riot at Ecija, provoked by the Intransigentes and attended with considerable loss of life. The municipal elections in Malaga on the same day were attended with riot and bloodshed. The Intransigentes in Seville attacked a party of Republican recruits, but the latter resisted, and several were killed.

Risings at Ecija, Malaga and Seville.

The insurgent men-of-war from Cartagena effected a landing at Augilas and pillaged the town and suburbs. The insurgent fleet proceeded to Alicante, in the province of Alicante. When a demand for a contribution was rejected, a fierce bombardment was opened on the city, on the 27th of September, 1873; and five hundred projectiles, some filled with petroleum, were thrown into the city and did great damage; but the fleet was seriously disabled by a vigorous return fire from the forts, and after several days it withdrew from Alicante.

Insurgent Bombardment of Alicante.

In the meantime the siege and bombardment of Cartagena by the government forces had progressed actively. A column of two thou-

**Siege and
Bombard-
ment of
Carta-
gena.**

sand insurgents made a desperate sortie from the city on the 9th of October, but was repulsed with heavy loss. The Intransigente fleet was defeated by the national squadron under Admiral Lobos on the 11th of October, near Cartagena. On the 19th of October the insurgent squadron from Cartagena appeared before Valencia, but withdrew several days afterward with the plunder of ten Spanish merchant-ships. On the 23d of October the government fleet arrived off Cartagena and was fired upon from the forts, but the insurgent vessels remained inside the harbor. The bombardment of the city continued incessantly. On the 26th of November the cathedral and the hospital were struck by the besiegers' artillery. On the 28th the Protestant church and the theater were destroyed, and two hundred persons were killed and wounded within the city. The insurgents raised the black flag upon the forts. The bombardment did great damage to the city, and four hundred houses were destroyed; but the forts and batteries remained almost intact. The bombardment produced distress among non-combatants. The insurgents strengthened their works and armament. The government forces at length occupied the San Antonio suburb, and, concentrating their fire upon the forts, suspended their bombardment of the town.

**Progress
of the
Carlist
Rebellion.**

The Carlist rebellion in the North of Spain continued during the Administrations of Pi y Margall, Salmeron and Castelar. Don Carlos had entered Spain on the 16th of July, 1873, from Bayonne, in France, accompanied by several attendants, and was received by his adherents with indescribable enthusiasm. During the whole summer and autumn of 1873 the Basque Provinces, Navarre and Catalonia were the theaters of numerous engagements between the Republican forces, commanded by Generals Nouvillas, Cabrinity, Moriones and others, and the Carlist bands under the leadership of the Curé of Santa Cruz and Generals Dorregaray, Seballs, Ollo and Tristany, and Don Alfonso. By the close of the autumn of 1873 there were forty thousand Carlists under arms in the North of Spain; and Don Carlos took up his winter-quarters at Durango, in the province of Biscay.

**General
Pavia's
Coup
d'Etat.**

The Spanish Cortes reassembled on the 2d of January, 1874; and President Castelar read his message from the Ministerial bench. For a long time a disagreement had existed between Señor Castelar, President of the Republic, and Señor Salmeron, President of the Cortes; and on this occasion a sharp debate took place between these two Republican leaders and statesmen. On the 3d of January, 1874, the Cortes, on two votes, refused to sustain President Castelar; the majority against him being twenty. As soon as the result of the votes was announced, General Pavia, Captain-General of Madrid, who had surrounded the Chamber of the Cortes with soldiers, sent an officer into the Chamber with a letter to Salmeron, demanding the dissolution of the

Cortes. Thereupon Señor Castelar resigned the Presidency of the Republic, and his Cabinet retired from office; and immediately some of General Pavia's soldiers entered the hall and expelled the Deputies. General Pavia then summoned the most eminent men of all parties to form a new government, excluding only Carlists and Intransigentes; but he refused personally to become a member of the government. Marshal Serrano was made President of the Republic, and an able Ministry was formed. Castelar, Salmeron and other Republican leaders protested with all their energy against the brutal Coup d'État of General Pavia.

Castelar's Resignation.

Marshal Serrano, President.

On the 8th of January, 1874, a Communist insurrection broke out in Barcelona; and barricades were erected in the suburbs by the insurgents. Fort Montijoi, on the south side of the city, opened fire on the city; and there was severe fighting in the suburbs. The insurrection continued until the 15th, when the insurgents surrendered, and the authority of the Spanish government was fully restored in the city.

Communist Insurrection at Barcelona.

Early in January, 1874, after General Pavia's Coup d'État, the besiegers of Cartagena redoubled their efforts to reduce the city; but the garrison held out stubbornly and made several desperate sorties. On the 9th of January a column of the national army besieging Cartagena was repulsed in an assault upon Fort San Julian. A heavy fire was kept up on both sides. The besiegers finally compelled Atalaya Castle to surrender. During the siege and bombardment, powder magazines frequently exploded in the city, causing much destruction of life.

Bombardment of Cartagena.

Cartagena surrendered to the government forces on the 14th of January, 1874. Upon the capitulation of the city the members of the insurgent Junta and the liberated convicts went on board the frigate *Numancia*. The *Numancia*, in escaping, passed five Spanish men-of-war, and arrived safely at Mers-el-Kebir, on the coast of Algeria, with twenty-five hundred refugees on board, among whom were Generals Contreras and Galvez. One of the steamers which attempted to escape was captured with a large number of refugees. Another insurgent vessel with a large party of refugees succeeded in reaching the French shores, whither she was pursued by a French man-of-war. The members of the Cartagenian Junta surrendered the *Numancia* to the French authorities at Mers-el-Kebir. The *Numancia* was delivered by the French to a Spanish frigate. The insurgent chiefs—Contreras, Ferrez and Galvez—were sent to the capital of Algeria; and the Cartagenian refugees were interned in the forts and barracks of Oran and Mers-el-Kebir.

Fall of Cartagena.

Flight of Insurgent Leaders.

Winter did not suspend operations between the Carlist and Republican forces in the North of Spain, and the province of Biscay was the

Progress
of the
Carlist
Rebellion.

principal theater of war. During the month of February, 1874, there was severe fighting at Bilbao, Tolosa and Somorrostro between the opposing forces, with various success. After the fall of Cartagena and the suppression of the Intransigente insurrection, President Serrano assumed the chief command of the government forces operating against the Carlists; and, with the aid of his chief subordinates, Generals Loma and Manuel de la Concha, he prepared for a vigorous and decisive campaign.

Serrano's
Campaign
against
the
Carlists.

By the middle of March, 1874, a Republican army of thirty-four thousand men, under the chief command of President Serrano himself, stood face to face with a Carlist force of thirty-five thousand men; while General Loma, with eight thousand Republican troops, was moving on the Carlist rear. In the meantime the Carlists had laid siege to Bilbao, which they bombarded incessantly, throwing two hundred shells into the city daily. The Carlists captured an outlying fort with forty prisoners, and they threw incendiary shells into Bilbao with terrible effect. An engagement before the city resulted in the occupation of the Albia suburb by the besiegers. A desperate engagement was fought before Bilbao on the 25th of March, lasting all day; and in the evening the Republicans encamped on the positions which they had captured from the Carlists. The fighting before Bilbao was renewed on the 26th, continuing all day and closing at night with decided advantages for the Republican forces. Serrano's troops advanced and drove back the Carlist lines, capturing, at the point of the bayonet, several villages and several positions which were occupied by the insurgents the day previous. Serrano's losses during these two days were five hundred and fifty men, and Generals Loma and Primo de Rivera were severely wounded. Serrano made a successful attack on Pedro Abanto and drove the Carlists beyond Santa Juliana. The fighting at Bilbao was renewed on the 28th of March, lasting all day; and the Republicans were repulsed in their attacks on the Carlist lines, losing four thousand men, while the Carlists lost only one thousand. A heavy fire was kept up on the Carlist positions before Bilbao by the Republican artillery. Active operations before Bilbao were resumed on the 3d of April, 1874, with the bombardment of Abanto by the Republican forces. Serrano's army kept up a furious cannonade on the Carlist positions before Bilbao. On the 29th of April fighting was resumed before Bilbao, and the struggle continued the next two days; and on the 1st of May the Carlists were defeated and routed, and the Republican forces under President Serrano and General Manuel de la Concha triumphantly entered Bilbao. During the month of May there were several skirmishes around Bilbao, and at the close of the month the Carlists invested Hernani.

Siege of
Bilbao.

On the 25th of June, 1874, General Manuel de la Concha, in the midst of a terrible storm, surprised the Carlist positions near Estella. The engagement lasted an hour, and the Carlist losses were heavy. In a bayonet charge on the Carlist intrenchments at Mura, Marshal Concha, who was over eighty years of age, having placed himself at the head of the Republican troops, was instantly killed. The Republican army then fell back to Lerin, eight miles from Estella. The Republican loss was fifteen hundred men. The command of the Republican army was then given to General Zabala, Spanish Minister of War. Marshal Concha's death produced a profound sensation throughout Spain, and his remains were honored with magnificent funeral obsequies.

**Attack on
Estella
and
Death of
Marshal
Concha.**

On the 13th of July, 1874, Don Alfonso, with eight thousand Carlists, made an attack upon the Republicans at Cuenca; and, after a most desperate struggle, during which the Republicans repulsed four fierce assaults made upon them by the Carlists, the Carlists finally obtained possession of the Citadel, compelling the Republicans to surrender. The victors practiced the greatest cruelties upon the vanquished, many of whom were shot after they had surrendered.

**Carlist
Capture of
Cuenca.**

In August, 1874, the Spanish Republic was formally recognized by Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Holland and Sweden; but Russia held aloof, fearing that recognition would strengthen the cause of republicanism in Europe, and alleging that Marshal Serrano's government, which had its origin in a Coup d'Etat, had no legal existence.

**Recogni-
tion
of the
Spanish
Republic.**

The war between the Republicans and the Carlists continued with various success. In the latter part of August, 1874, the Carlists were repulsed in repeated attacks on Puigcerda. Early in November, 1874, the Carlists laid siege to Irun, which they bombarded furiously for nearly a week; but eventually they were compelled to raise the siege and to retreat into Navarre.

**Carlist
Attacks
on Puig-
cerda
and Irun.**

On the 31st of December, 1874, Prince Alfonso, son of ex-Queen Isabella II., was proclaimed King of Spain by the Republican armies. Marshal Serrano acquiesced. The Minister of the Interior immediately sent dispatches to the governors of the provinces, announcing that ALFONSO XII. had been proclaimed king by the nation, the army and the Ministry. On the 9th of January, 1875, King Alfonso arrived at Barcelona from France and was received with great demonstrations of enthusiasm. On the 14th, January, 1875, he arrived in Madrid and met with a grand reception; and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

**Prince
Alfonso
Pro-
claimed
King of
Spain
by the
Armies.**

After taking possession of the throne of Spain, King Alfonso issued a proclamation calling upon the Carlists to lay down their arms. But

**King
Alfonso's
Procla-
mation
to the
Carlists.**

they refused, and preparations were made to subdue them. In February, 1875, Estella was captured by the Alfonsists; and the Carlists were repulsed in an attack upon Bilbao. In March, General Cabrera deserted the cause of Don Carlos and issued a proclamation recognizing Alfonso as King of Spain and calling upon the Carlists to submit. He also concluded a convention with the Alfonsists. In May, Generals Elio and Aguirre also deserted Don Carlos; and Aguirre issued an address to the Carlists, advising them to submit to King Alfonso.

**Carlist
Deser-
tions.**

In July, 1875, the Carlists were defeated by the Alfonsists under Generals Jovellar and Martinez Campos; but the Alfonsist General Loma was unsuccessful. Dorregaray fled across the Pyrenees into France, pursued by the Alfonsists. In August the Alfonsists laid siege to the strong fortress of Seo de Urgel. On the 17th a body of six thousand Carlists made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve the beleaguered fortress; and on the 27th, August, 1875, Seo de Urgel surrendered to the Alfonsists. The Carlists were also defeated at other points about this time.

**Siege and
Fall of
Seo de
Urgel.**

**Carlist
Submis-
sions
and Dis-
sensations.**

In September, 1875, the Carlists in the provinces of Catalonia, Navarre and Biscay gave in their submission to the government of King Alfonso and applied for amnesty. The Carlists became more and more distracted by dissensions in their own ranks, and Don Carlos quarrelled with Generals Dorregaray and Seballs and others and ordered them to be shot. The Carlist rebellion finally ended in March, 1876.

SECTION XI.—CHURCH VERSUS STATE IN GERMANY AND ITALY (A. D. 1871–1874).

**Constitu-
tion of
the New
German
Empire.**

THE first Diet, or Parliament, of the new German Empire assembled at Berlin, the new capital of Germany, March 21, 1871; and after a month's deliberation it succeeded in framing a new imperial constitution, resembling the constitution of the North German Confederation. The new German Empire consists of twenty-five states, including the three free cities of Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck. Each German state has its own local government for the management of its domestic concerns and is allowed to send and receive envoys and ambassadors, but the general interests of the Empire are under the exclusive control of the imperial government. The imperial Diet, or Parliament, called the *Reichstag* and elected by the German people, is vested with the legislative power of the Empire. The Emperor is vested with the executive power of the Empire and is empowered to form alliances, to conclude treaties, to declare war and to conclude peace. The Imperial Chancellor is appointed by the Emperor and is his representative in the

Reichstag. The Imperial Chancellor is also president of the *Bundesrath*, or Federal Council, composed of representatives of the German states. He directs the affairs of the Empire and is also Minister of Foreign Affairs. Though the German states reserved important privileges in establishing the Empire, the general tendency seems to be to weaken those privileges and to strengthen the power of the imperial government.

The task of organizing the German Empire was completed without interruption or difficulty during the year 1871. The large war-indemnity exacted from France enabled the imperial government to meet its financial necessities without resort to new taxation. Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, the great statesman and astute diplomat, who truly may be called the founder of the new German Empire, while still remaining Prime Minister of Prussia, was elevated to the dignity of a prince of the Empire and was appointed by the Emperor William I. to the office of Chancellor of the Empire. The speedy success of the work of organizing the Empire was due chiefly to the energetic efforts of Prince Bismarck. A fine statue of Germania was erected on the Niederwald.

Prince
Bismarck
as Chan-
cellor of
Germany.

After the close of the Franco-German War, in 1871, the relations between the new German Empire and Austria-Hungary became extremely friendly. In September, 1872, the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary visited the Emperor William I. of Germany at Berlin and was cordially received; and in 1873 the Emperor William I. and King Victor Emmanuel of Italy visited the Emperor Francis Joseph at Vienna. These visits were evidence that Austria-Hungary had accepted in good faith the changes which resulted in the unification of both Germany and Italy, and that the Empire of the Hapsburgs was resolved to accept her new position and to do her duty honestly in the new arrangement of European affairs.

Friendly
Relations
with
Austria-
Hungary.

The Roman Catholic clergy of Germany manifested a sudden and intense opposition to the establishment of the new Empire under the leadership of Protestant Prussia. This hostility bore some relation to the dogma of papal infallibility. While the Œcumenical Council of the Roman Catholic Church was in session in the Vatican at Rome the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany had been most active in opposing this doctrine, but as soon as the doctrine was promulgated these bishops accepted it without hesitation and commanded their followers to do the same.

Hostility
of the
Roman
Catholic
Clergy of
Germany.

About the same time these German Roman Catholic bishops began their open opposition to the Empire, denouncing it from their pulpits in such seditious language that the imperial government was obliged to adopt stringent measures against them. The Reichstag passed a

Their
Open
Opposi-
tion to
the New
German
Empire.

bill prescribing severe punishments for the utterance of seditious language in the pulpits. The German government was induced only by the gravest considerations of public policy to depart from the principle of religious toleration; as the doctrine was not a religious affair alone, but was a political question also. The German Roman Catholic clergy directed the full force of this doctrine against the new Empire established under Protestant Prussia's ascendancy.

**Struggle
between
Church
and
State.**

This struggle was a renewal of the old efforts of the Pope to establish his supremacy over Germany, and the German government could not tolerate it. That government therefore made the Roman Catholic clergy of Germany amenable to the law for their attacks on the Empire from their pulpits, and decisively announced that sedition should not be incited from the pulpit with impunity. The law applied to all religious sects; but the Roman Catholic clergy alone experienced its effects, as they were the only ones who sought to make trouble. The Roman Catholic clergy openly disregarded the law, and in 1872 the German government was obliged to inflict its penalties on a number of the defiant clergy.

**Jesuits
Expelled.**

The Jesuits were especially active in inciting opposition to the imperial government, and in 1872 the Reichstag passed a law expelling them from the German Empire. Their establishments were broken up, and they were driven out of Germany.

**Prussian
Educa-
tion Act.**

In 1872 the Prussian Diet passed an act taking the control of the primary education of the youth out of the hands of the clergy, both Protestant and Catholic, and intrusting it to officials appointed by the state. The Protestants acquiesced in this measure, but the Catholics denounced it bitterly.

**Germa-
ny's Open
Rupture
with the
Roman
Catholic
Church.**

The religious orders of the Redemptorists, the Lazarists, the Sacred Heart (consisting of ladies) and some others, which were undeniably connected with the Jesuits, were also compelled to take themselves out of Germany. In November, 1872, a conference of the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany assembled at Fulda and denounced the measures of the German government against the religious orders as a persecution. In December, 1872, Pope Pius IX. issued an allocution in which he severely censured the "impudence" of the measures adopted by the German government. The Emperor William I. thereupon broke off all diplomatic intercourse with the Pope. Alluding to the struggle of the Emperor Henry IV. and Hildebrand in 1077, Prince Bismarck said: "We are not going to Canossa."

**Action
of the
Ultra-
montane
Party.**

For several years Germany was disturbed by this religious and political dispute, this struggle between Church and State. The Ultramontanes, or extreme Catholics, held allegiance to the Pope as a higher obligation than allegiance to the Emperor of Germany. The German

government, under the energetic direction of Prince Bismarck, was resolved to assert practically the supremacy of the civil over the ecclesiastical power; while the Ultramontane party, encouraged by the Pope and by the reactionary party in France, sought to place the spiritual above the civil power.

In 1873 a bill introduced by Prince Bismarck was passed by the Reichstag establishing civil marriage in the German Empire and doing away with baptism as a condition of the exercise of civil duties. The Prussian Diet passed still more liberal measures, with the design of placing Prussia on an equality with other Protestant states respecting the various churches. The Roman Catholic bishops openly defied these laws, thus obliging the imperial and Prussian governments to enforce their authority. Bishops were frequently arrested, fined and imprisoned by order of the Prussian government for their defiant attitude toward the civil authority. The Prussian government withdrew the pecuniary support which it had given to the Roman Catholic clergy and institutions until the clergy should obey the laws.

In this emergency Pope Pius IX. addressed a letter to the Emperor William I., praying him not to persecute the Church; affecting to believe that the Emperor-king did not approve of the measures of the Prussian and imperial governments; expressing the hope that "the cruel laws against the Church" would be repealed, and intimating that the Papacy had some rights to the allegiance of even Protestant monarchs. To this letter the Emperor-king replied politely, but firmly asserted his determination to defend the royal and imperial authority against the attacks of the Ultramontane party, and asserted that in a constitutional state like Prussia every law required the sovereign's approval and that he fully sympathized with the measures of his government. He asserted that the Roman Catholic bishops had brought their punishment upon themselves and had maliciously disturbed the peace of the German Empire by their seditious refusal to obey the laws.

The most defiant of the clergy were the Bishop of Ermeland and Archbishop Ledochowski of Posen. The Prussian government caused the Catholic churches of Berlin and the province of Posen to be closed; and Archbishop Ledochowski, who maintained an obstinate resistance to the decrees of the government, was arrested, tried, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment. The Bishop of Treves, the Archbishop of Cologne and Bishop Janizewski of Posen were also arrested for violation of the ecclesiastical laws. The Prussian government issued an ordinance requiring all bishops when installed to swear to maintain the subordination of the Church to the State. In December, 1873, Pope Pius IX. issued an allocution denouncing the governments of Germany, Switzerland and Italy for their encroachments on the Church. The

**Roman
Catholic
Defiance
of the
Laws.**

**Letter of
Pope
Pius IX.
and
Emperor
William's
Reply.**

**Vigorous
Action
of the
Prussian
Govern-
ment.**

journals in Prussia which published the allocation were prosecuted by the government.

**Catholic
Opposi-
tion to
Educa-
tion of
Clergy.**

One of the measures to which the Roman Catholic bishops of Germany objected most strenuously was the law concerning the education and discipline of the clergy. That law prohibited the appointment of parish priests without the previous sanction of the Prussian government and required clerical students to undergo a course of instruction in the German universities. By these methods the Prussian government sought to *Germanize* the Roman Catholic clergy in the Prussian dominions and to insure the implanting of some element of patriotism in them.

**Attitude
of the
Old
Catholics.**

The legal position held by the Old Catholics added a new element to the contest. The Old Catholics refused to accept the decrees of the Œcumenical Council of 1870 and claimed that the Pope and the bishops who adhered to the decree of the Council had abandoned the Roman Catholic Church, of which the Old Catholics claimed to be the true representatives. As the Roman Catholic Church had been regarded in Prussia as one of the State Churches previous to 1870, the Old Catholics claimed, as its true representatives, to be entitled to the pecuniary support granted to it by law. The imperial government refused to accept this view, but also declined to treat the Old Catholics as seceders from the Roman Catholic Church, maintaining that the question was one of the internal government of that Church, with which the state had no right to interfere. Accordingly Prussia recognized the missionary bishop of the Old Catholics as a bishop of the Roman Catholic Church and conferred a salary upon him.

The controversy between the German Empire and the Roman Catholic Church became intensified yearly and promised to remain an unsettled question for many years. The chief leader of the Ultramontane party in the Reichstag in opposition to Prince Bismarck's anti-Catholic measures was Herr Windhorst.

**German
Army
Bill.**

In February, 1874, the German Reichstag passed a bill fixing the German army at four hundred and one thousand men on a peace-footing and at a million and a half on a war-footing.

**Attempt
on Bis-
marck's
Life.**

On the 14th of July, 1874, while Prince Bismarck was riding out in the country, from Kissingen, in Bavaria, he was fired at by a young Catholic named Kulmann. The prince narrowly escaped assassination, the ball grazing his wrist. Kulmann was promptly arrested, and the people were with difficulty restrained from lynching him. Bismarck received over one hundred telegrams congratulating him upon his escape.

**Church
and
State
in Italy**

Italy and Switzerland, as well as Germany, were distracted by a quarrel between Church and State. The contest between Pope Pius IX.

and the Italian government became more bitter after the overthrow of the Pope's temporal power and after the city of Rome had become the capital of the Kingdom of Italy. The Italian government was obliged to adopt stern measures to maintain its authority, though the Pope's just rights were respected. In October, 1872, the Jesuits, who had given much trouble to the Italian government, were expelled from Rome. On the very same day the first scientific congress ever assembled within the walls of Rome convened in the Capitol under the presidency of Count Mamiani.

King Victor Emmanuel died January 9, 1878, and was succeeded as King of Italy by his son HUMBERT. Pope Pius IX. died about a month later, February 7, 1878; and a few weeks later the conclave of cardinals from the Roman Catholic world convened at Rome and chose Cardinal Giovanni Pecci to the Chair of St. Peter with the title of Leo XIII. Pius IX. had never become reconciled to the loss of his temporal power, declaring with his latest breath that he was a prisoner in the Vatican; and his successor adopted his theories and his principles.

Humbert,
King of
Italy,
A. D.
1878-
1901.

Pope Leo
XIII.

SECTION XII.—TRIUMPH OF THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC (A. D. 1871-1879).

AFTER the suppression of the rebellion of the Paris Commune in 1871 the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of the French Assembly and people. The Legitimists labored actively for the elevation of the Count de Chambord, the chief of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon, to the throne of France as king. The Orleanists sought to place the Count de Paris—who had served on General McClellan's staff in the American Civil War and who wrote a history of that great conflict—on the throne. The Bonapartists, who were now comparatively weak, intrigued in behalf of the Prince Imperial, son of Napoleon III.; while the Republicans of all factions, whose recognized chief was President Thiers, were determined upon the preservation of the Republic. The Radical Republicans, headed by M. Gambetta, demanded the dissolution of the National Assembly which had met in February, 1871, and the election of a new Assembly.

During the summer of 1871 the National Assembly adopted liberal measures for the government of the French cities and the conduct of elections. The laws banishing the Bourbon and Orleans princes having been repealed June 8, 1871, the Duke d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville, two of the Orleans princes, took their seats in the Assembly in December of the same year, having been elected thereto when the Assembly was chosen in the preceding February. The Count de Cham-

Parties
in the
French
National
Assem-
bly.

Orleanist
and
Legiti-
mist
Claim-
ants
to the
French
Throne.

bord, the Legitimist claimant of the French throne, returned to France; and, to the dismay of his partisans, he issued a manifesto declaring that he relinquished none of his claims and that he never would renounce the white flag of the Bourbons for the tricolor; after which he returned to his residence at Frohsdorf, in Germany. The Count de Chambord's declaration so disgusted the French nation that his adherents were obliged to abandon their hopes of elevating him to the throne of his ancestors.

General
Popular
Accept-
ance
of the
French
Republic.

The three monarchical parties in France—the Legitimists, the Orleanists and the Bonapartists—were agreed only in their opposition to the Republic; and none of the three was willing to abandon the cause of its claimant for the throne. This disagreement rendered it clear that the Republic was the only form of government possible for France for the present. The French people generally had accepted the Republic and discountenanced all the schemes for substituting a Legitimist or Orleanist kingdom or a Bonapartist Empire in its stead.

Bitter
Political
Struggles
in the
French
National
Assem-
bly.

The supplementary elections to fill vacancies in the National Assembly in January, 1872, resulted in the choice of thirteen Republicans and four Conservatives, or Monarchists. The discussions on the question of a permanent form of government were renewed in the Assembly. The Conservatives, or Monarchists, had a majority in the Assembly; and for some time it seemed that they would be able to subvert the Republic and substitute a monarchy in its stead. The Monarchist majority in the Assembly had little regard for the sentiment of the French nation, which was most pronounced in favor of the continuance of the Republic; but the impossibility of reconciling the conflicting claims of the different pretenders to the French throne frustrated the Monarchist schemes and obliged all parties in France to give their immediate support to the Republic.

Rejection
of
President
Thiers's
Tariff
Bill.

The National Assembly then directed its attention to the task of providing for the immediate necessities of the French nation. President Thiers presented a new tariff bill to the Assembly in January, 1872, imposing new duties upon foreign imports and even levying a tax upon raw materials. This favorite measure of the President of the Republic met with strong opposition in the Assembly and throughout the country, and finally was rejected by the Assembly, January 19, 1872. President Thiers tendered his resignation the next day; but the Assembly, by an almost unanimous vote, asked him to withdraw it, and he acceded to the Assembly's request.

Growth
of Re-
publican
Senti-
ment.

During the summer of 1872 there were many evidences of the growth of Republican sentiment among the French people, particularly the large gains made by the Republicans in the supplementary elections on October 21, 1872, to fill vacancies in the Assembly.



EMPEROR WILLIAM I. AND HIS STAFF
From the Painting by W. Camphausen (Cologne Museum)

A short time before these elections M. Gambetta had made a speech to the electors of Grenoble, declaring that the political power of France must be transferred to a new social stratum—a declaration which was generally interpreted as implying that the exclusive supremacy of artisans and laborers, which had been the main object of the revolt of the Paris Commune the previous year, was to be established by a democratic Assembly after the necessary preliminaries of a dissolution. The conservative parties in the Assembly were seriously alarmed at M. Gambetta's declaration in this speech, and they accordingly united solidly against the Republicans.

Effect of Gambetta's Speech at Grenoble.

An exciting debate occurred in the National Assembly on November 18, 1872, as to whether the government had endeavored sufficiently to suppress the demonstrations which Gambetta had excited. President Thiers participated in this debate, defending his administration and demanding a vote of confidence from the Assembly. The vote of confidence that was then taken was given so unsatisfactorily that a new quarrel arose between the President and the Assembly. The committee appointed to draft an address in reply to the President's message made a report on November 26, 1872, sharply criticising the document. Indignant at this treatment, President Thiers threatened to resign; but the affair was compromised by the appointment of a Committee of Thirty, December 5, 1872, to which was assigned the task of drafting a bill defining the relations between the President and the Assembly and regulating the responsibility of the different departments of the government.

Quarrel between President Thiers and the National Assembly.

Gambetta, Crémieux and other leaders of the Left, as the Republican party in the Assembly was called, published a manifesto, December 10, 1872, demanding the dissolution of the Assembly and the election of a new Assembly as the proper method of ascertaining the will of the French people concerning the questions at issue. Several petitions to the same effect were presented to the Assembly from the departments, but were rejected by the Assembly.

Republican Manifesto.

The plans of the Bonapartists were disconcerted by the death of the ex-Emperor Napoleon III. at Chislehurst, England, January 9, 1873. His death was sincerely regretted by the French people, whose material welfare he had done so very much to promote, notwithstanding his many faults.

Death of Napoleon III.

The Committee of Thirty reported a bill early in January, 1873, defining the powers of the President and the Assembly; and a long and exciting debate ensued, during which President Thiers several times threatened to resign. The committee's report was finally adopted in a greatly modified form, March 13, 1873. A bill was passed March 29, 1873, exiling the Bonapartist family from France. Supplementary

Progress of the Political Struggle.

elections to fill vacancies in the National Assembly were held April 27, 1873, which resulted in the choice of several Radical leaders.

**Renewed
Quarrel
between
President
Thiers
and the
National
Assem-
bly.**

President Thiers made several changes in his Ministry. The Monarchist majority in the Assembly did not consider the new Cabinet sufficiently conservative and sharply criticised the President's action. None of the Monarchical parties in the Assembly accepted the Republic in good faith; and each hoped that the uncertain condition of affairs in which the nation was placed would offer to it the opportunity of subverting the Republic and restoring the monarchy to which it was devoted, each striving to obtain the President's support in such a course.

**Fall of
Thiers.**

M. Thiers recommended the definitive establishment of the Conservative Republic. The struggle between the Republicans and the Monarchists in the Assembly continued until the 23d of May, 1873, when the Monarchist majority in the Assembly demanded the organization of a more conservative Ministry. On that day a violent scene took place in the Assembly. When President Thiers mounted the tribune to address the Assembly his voice was drowned by the cries of the Monarchists. After vainly endeavoring to make himself heard, the President descended the tribune; and, amid the greatest confusion and excitement, the Assembly adjourned. On the following day, May 24, 1873, President Thiers addressed the Assembly, urging the definitive establishment of the Republic. After a violent debate and the defeat of the government on several votes in the Assembly the Ministry resigned; and a message from M. Thiers was read in the Assembly, in which he tendered his resignation as President of the Republic, which was accepted by a vote of the Assembly. The Assembly then elected Marshal MacMahon to the Presidency of the Republic. The new President announced a conservative policy and formed a Cabinet composed chiefly of Monarchists with the Duke de Broglie at its head.

**President
Mac-
Mahon.**

**Aggres-
siveness
of the
Monarch-
ists.**

For some time after the election of President MacMahon the Conservative, or Monarchist party in the Assembly was reinforced by accessions from the Republican ranks. Many Monarchists were appointed to office throughout France; and the government felt sufficiently strong to forbid the popular celebration of the third anniversary of the establishment of the Third French Republic, September 4th.

**Obstinacy
of the
Count de
Cham-
bord.**

It was soon apparent that the Conservative party was resolved upon the reestablishment of monarchy in France. The Orleans princes and their leading partisans visited the Count de Chambord at Frohsdorf and formally acknowledged the hereditary right of the Count de Chambord as "Henry V." But in this crisis the Count de Chambord, with true Bourbon obstinacy, addressed a letter to M. de Chesnelong declaring that he never would consent to relinquish the white flag of his ancestors

for the tricolor—a declaration which at once dissolved the coalition in his favor and dispelled the hopes of his adherents. On the night of November 19, 1873, the Assembly, by a decisive vote, adopted the Septennate, prolonging President MacMahon's powers for seven years.

The government now considered itself sufficiently strong to bring Marshal Bazaine to trial for the surrender of Metz during the war with Germany. He was charged with treason in surrendering his army and the fortress of Metz without adequate cause. He was found guilty December 10, 1873, and was sentenced to be shot; but President MacMahon commuted his sentence to degradation from his rank and twenty years' imprisonment. He was imprisoned in the fortress of the island of St. Marguerite, but escaped therefrom in the summer of 1874.

The Broglie Ministry resigned in May, 1874, in consequence of a defeat in the Assembly; and a new Ministry, in which the Duke Decazes was the chief member, was formed. The quarrels of the different parties in the National Assembly forced all these parties to support the Septennate; while President MacMahon declared his determination to maintain, against all opposition, the power with which the Assembly had intrusted him, to the end of his seven years' term.

In the meantime the question of the future form of government for France engaged the attention of the National Assembly. After voting the prolongation of President MacMahon's powers for seven years, the Assembly devoted itself to the framing of Constitutional Bills. Finally, in February, 1875, the Assembly passed Constitutional Bills, providing for the establishment of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies, which were to be vested with the legislative power, while the executive power was to be entrusted to a President of the Republic, who was to be elected for seven years by both Chambers of the Assembly in joint convention. The Constitution also provided that the President of the Republic, with the advice and consent of the Senate, could dissolve the Chamber of Deputies. The principle of Ministerial responsibility was established. The Senate was to consist of three hundred members, of which two hundred and twenty-five were to be elected by the Councils-Generals, the Municipal Councils and the arrondissements, and seventy-five by the Chamber of Deputies; and all Senators were to be irremovable. The Chamber of Deputies was to be elected by universal suffrage. The Senate Bill was passed on February 24, 1875, by four hundred and forty-eight yeas to two hundred and forty-one nays. On the same day the Assembly recognized the Republic by passing the Public Powers Bill by a vote of four hundred and thirty-three yeas to two hundred and sixty-two nays. An Electoral Bill, prescribing the conditions of suffrage, was debated for many months, and was finally passed in December, 1875. The Assembly appointed the 7th of March, 1876,

**Bazaine's
Trial,
Imprison-
ment and
Escape.**

**Broglie,
Decazes
and the
Septen-
nate.**

**Definitive
Estab-
lishment
of the
Third
French
Republic.**

as the day of meeting for the new Assembly, thus voting its own dissolution.

Ministries of Dufaure and Jules Simon.

In March, 1876, a new Ministry under M. Dufaure came into power in France; but in December of the same year, 1876, a Cabinet crisis occurred, and the result was the organization of a Republican Ministry under Jules Simon, one of the Moderate Republican leaders. This produced quiet for a time; and affairs seemed to work smoothly until May, 1877, when President MacMahon, who was in sympathy with the Monarchist faction, determined to check the advancing spirit of Republicanism.

Resignation of Jules Simon's Ministry.

On the 8th of May, 1877, the French Chamber of Deputies had a tumultuous session. Jules Simon was attacked by the Bonapartists, and angry debates ensued. On the 15th, May, 1877, the Chamber of Deputies voted to repeal the Press Law of 1875; whereupon President MacMahon wrote to Jules Simon, opposing the repeal of the law. In consequence of this letter, Jules Simon and his Cabinet tendered their resignations. In a general meeting of the Republican Deputies, in the Grand Hotel in Paris, a resolution was passed declaring the Chamber's want of confidence in a Monarchist Cabinet. On leaving the meeting, M. Gambetta, the talented young Republican leader, was loudly cheered by the populace. He addressed them, recommending calmness and moderation and declaring his confidence in the final triumph of Republicanism. The multitude responded with shouts of "Vive Gambetta!" "Vive la Republique!" The Republican Union afterward met and confirmed the action of the meeting. The first intelligence of the crisis produced dismay throughout Paris, and fears were entertained for the peace of the French Republic. In the Chamber of Deputies, on the 17th, May, 1877, a resolution declaring the Chamber's lack of confidence in a Ministry not governing in accordance with Republican principles was adopted by a vote of three hundred and fifty-five against one hundred and fifty-four. M. Gambetta made a speech expressing France's wish for a definitive Republic. The speech was loudly cheered, amid the greatest excitement.

Ministry of the Duke de Broglie.

President MacMahon proceeded to the formation of a Ministry composed of Monarchists, with the Duke de Broglie at its head. The new Ministry proceeded to the removal of the Republican Prefects from the Departments and the appointment of Monarchists in their stead. On the 18th, May, 1877, President MacMahon sent a message to the Chambers proroguing both Chambers for one month. There was great excitement and confusion in both Chambers. The Republicans of both Chambers issued spirited addresses to the French people. The crisis was regarded as serious for France, and fears of civil war were entertained.

In the Chamber of Deputies, on the 16th of June, 1877, M. de Fourtou, the new French Minister of the Interior, read a declaration announcing that President MacMahon had sent a message to the Senate informing that body of his intention to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, by virtue of the power conferred upon him by the Fifth Article of the Constitution, and demanding the concurrence of the Senate. A violent discussion ensued and was continued for several days; the Republicans severely censuring, and the Monarchists sustaining, the President's action. M. Gambetta remarked that the Republican majority in the Chamber would go to the country numbering three hundred and sixty-three and return four hundred strong and that the triumph of the Monarchists would lead to civil war. At the close of his speech M. Gambetta fainted. Jules Simon made a scathing attack on the government. The Chamber refused to vote direct taxes, but unanimously voted supplementary grants for the conduct of the public service. In the Chamber of Deputies, on June 25th, M. Grévy, the President of the Chamber, read the decree formally dissolving the Chamber and intimating that the elections would be held within an interval of three months. The Republican Senators issued a declaration, saying that the reëlection of the three hundred and sixty-three Republicans of the Chamber of Deputies was a duty incumbent upon the country, as a solemn affirmation of its intention to maintain Republican principles at home and peace abroad. It was decided to hold the elections on September 16th and to convene the new Chamber on October 8th.

The Ministry endeavored to carry the elections by a wholesale persecution of Republicans. Republican officials were removed, and the press was muzzled. On August 28, 1877, the Public Prosecutor issued a summons upon M. Gambetta ordering him to appear to answer for certain remarks in a speech at Lille; and several weeks afterward he was sentenced to three months imprisonment and to pay a fine of two thousand francs.

The Republicans now suffered an irreparable loss; their trusted leader, M. Thiers, suddenly dying of apoplexy, at St. Germain, September 2, 1877, and being mourned by the friends of liberty in France and throughout the world. The remains of Ex-President Thiers were honored with the most magnificent funeral obsequies in Paris, the people lining the streets as the funeral procession passed; but the French government caused the streets to be lined with soldiers, to prevent any extensive Republican demonstrations in honor of the great statesman and champion of liberty.

On September 21st an address was issued to the French people, signed by a number of Parisian and Provincial Deputies, representing all shades of French Republicanism and reminding the people of the duty

**Dissolution
of the
Chamber
of
Deputies.**

**Prosecution
of Gam-
betta.**

**Death
and
Funeral
of Ex-
President
Thiers.**

**Republican
Address.**

Gambetta's
Second
Trial.

of returning the three hundred and sixty-three Republican Deputies. At the second trial of M. Gambetta, on September 22d, on appeal from his previous sentence of three months' imprisonment and two thousand francs fine, his counsel argued that the tribunal was incompetent. The court rejected the plea and confirmed the sentence at the first trial.

Violent
Course
of the
Ministry.

The *Bien Public* was seized on October 23d for reporting M. Gambetta's trial. The *Official Journal* published a circular of the Minister of Justice, giving instructions that all electoral addresses be carefully read, in order to prevent outrages against the President, violent measures or falsehoods. The *Official Journal* also published a decree ordering elections for Deputies on October 14th and the summoning of the extra Chamber of Deputies on November 7th.

Republican
Proceedings.

The Republican committee of the Ninth Arrondissement of Paris, of which Victor Hugo was honorary and M. Gambetta acting president, formally nominated M. Jules Grévy to the place filled by M. Thiers as head of the French Democratic party and leader of the three hundred and sixty-three Republican Deputies. On October 2d M. Gambetta formally lodged an appeal against the sentence passed upon him by the Correctional Tribunal. A manifesto to the French nation, found among M. Thiers's papers after his death, was published by the Republicans. The Royalists denied the authenticity of the document; and the government telegraphed instructions to the Prefects of the Departments, interdicting the colportage or placarding of M. Thiers's posthumous address. The feeling between the Monarchical and Republican parties in the remote provincial districts of France was as bitter as that of two hostile nations ready to come to blows.

Thiers's
Posthumous
Address.

Official
Candidates.

The government placed in nomination an "official list" of candidates for election to the Chamber of Deputies, and placards were issued by the Prefects of the Departments for posting in the various arrondissements. The placards were headed "Candidate of the Government of Marshal MacMahon, President of the Republic." The government's candidates were divided into one hundred and thirty-one Legitimists, eighty-three Orleanists and two hundred and ninety-eight Bonapartists; about twenty arrondissements being without any "official candidates."

Gambetta's
Manifesto.

On November 7, 1877, M. Gambetta issued a manifesto to the electors of the Twentieth Arrondissement of Paris, in which he enumerated the despotic acts and violent measures of the government to carry the elections in favor of the Monarchical party. The manifesto censured the licensed violence of the reactionary press and the muzzling of the Republican press and advised the utmost discretion on the part of the Republicans. M. Gambetta was prosecuted for placarding his manifesto to the electors of the Twentieth Arrondissement of Paris on the streets,

Second
Prosecution
of
Gambetta.

and the printer of the manifesto was summoned before the Correctional Tribunal. At a Republican meeting on October 9th M. Gambetta made a speech urging upon the French people the necessity of returning a decisive and overwhelming Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

On October 11th President MacMahon issued a manifesto, appealing to the French people to support the government candidates in the interest of social order, which he represented as seriously threatened by the prevalence of radical ideas, and denying that the government contemplated the subversion of the Constitution of the Republic or that peace with foreign powers was in danger from the success of the government candidates. The President's manifesto concluded as follows: "I answer for order and peace." The bureau of the Republican Senators issued a counter-manifesto, asking the French people to disbelieve those who asserted that republican institutions were not in danger and that the government was not acting under the influence of the priests. The Republican counter-manifesto declared the "official candidates" enemies to the Republic.

The elections in France for Deputies were held on Sunday, October 14, 1877, and resulted in a great Republican victory, though the former Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies was considerably reduced. In the former Chamber there were three hundred and sixty-three Republicans and one hundred and seventy Monarchists, the Republicans having a majority of one hundred and ninety-three. The new election resulted in the choice of three hundred and twenty Republicans and two hundred and thirteen Monarchists, leaving a Republican majority of one hundred and seven. The result of the election did not produce quiet, as both parties appeared very uncompromising. The Republicans threatened to annul all of those elections which resulted in the success of the government candidates through government pressure, while the Monarchists threatened another dissolution in case the Republicans attempted to execute their threat. The government journals declared that the Ministry would neither submit to the popular verdict, as expressed in the elections, nor resign; and the Republicans threatened to refuse to vote the budget in case a Republican Cabinet was not appointed. The crisis appeared serious, and civil war was threatened. The idea, however, of invalidating the elections of the government candidates by wholesale was abandoned by the Republicans; and it was determined to annul only those elections which were palpably vitiated. In a speech at Chateau-Chinon, Department of Nierve, M. Gambetta violently denounced the government electoral maneuvers, declaring that but for fraud and robbery four hundred Republicans would have been returned to the Chamber of Deputies. He made a

**President
Mac-
Mahon's
Mani-
festo.**

**Repub-
lican
Counter-
Mani-
festo.**

**Great
Repub-
lican
Victory
in the
Elections.**

bitter attack on the Bonapartists and declared that the Republicans desired order with progress, but that they had no subversive aims.

**Elections
for
Councils-
General.**

In the election for Councils-General, on November 4, 1877, the Republicans made immense gains; and, when the second ballots were completed, the Republicans had the majority in forty-nine Departments, while the Monarchists had a majority in thirty-seven Departments. In an interview with a delegation of Monarchical Deputies, on November 6th, President MacMahon fully intimated that he was resolved not to resign. The Duke de Broglie's Ministry several times tendered their resignations, but remained at the President's request.

**Bitter
Quarrel
in the
Chamber
of
Deputies.**

The French Senate and Chamber of Deputies met on November 7, 1877; and M. Jules Grévy, the Republican leader, was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of two hundred and ninety against one hundred and seventy. There was intense excitement in Paris, and both parties seemed uncompromising. The Monarchists appeared determined to rule, in spite of the expressed will of the French people. The Legitimists and Orleanists, alarmed at the increasing strength and boldness of the Bonapartists, seemed disposed to break away from the Monarchical coalition. The Bonapartists and Legitimists, however, threatened, if their elections were invalidated by wholesale, to resign in a body and thus furnish the Senate with a pretext for a fresh dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies; but the Orleanist members of the Senate refused to sanction another dissolution, and thus the Duke de Broglie and M. de Fourtou were baffled in their reactionary schemes. In the Chamber of Deputies, on November 12th, the Republican Deputy, M. Albert Grévy, brother of M. Jules Grévy, the President of the Chamber, introduced a resolution of inquiry into electoral abuses. The resolution produced a violent debate, which continued for several days; M. Gambetta and M. Jules Ferry sustaining the motion for inquiry; and M. de Fourtou, Minister of the Interior, opposing the motion and defending the course of the government during the electoral contest. M. Albert Grévy's resolution was passed, and a committee of inquiry was appointed.

**Resigna-
tion
of the
Ministry
of the
Duke de
Broglie.**

The Duke de Broglie's Ministry resigned on November 16, 1877, the Orleanist Senators having refused to sustain it any longer. Thirty Orleanist Senators waited upon the President of the Republic on November 15th and assured him of their devotion, but declared they could not support the Cabinet in a policy of resistance to the national will. The Orleanist Senators, in a preliminary meeting of the Senate, on November 16th, declared that the salvation of the country was at stake and refused to sanction another dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies. President MacMahon accepted the resignation of the Duke de Broglie and his colleagues, and set about the formation of a new Cabinet, com-

**A New
Ministry.**

posed of Legitimists and Bonapartists, who, however, promised to govern in accordance with Republican principles.

In the Senate, on November 19, 1877, M. Arago, Republican, moved the previous question in regard to M. de Kerdrel's interpellation as to how the Ministers had instructed officials to act with regard to the electoral inquiry voted for by the Chamber of Deputies, on the ground that it was unconstitutional and an encroachment on the rights of the Chamber of Deputies. M. Arago's motion was rejected by a vote of one hundred and fifty-five to one hundred and thirty. M. de Kerdrel and the Duke de Broglie, on the Royalist side, sustained the interpellation; while M. Laboulaye and M. Dufaure, on the Republican side, opposed it, as an encroachment on the rights of the Chamber of Deputies. Despite M. Dufaure's appeal, an attempt of the Republicans to shelve the discussion by proposing an order of the day pure and simple was defeated by a vote of one hundred and fifty-three to one hundred and thirty-six, and the order of the day proposed by the Monarchists was passed by a vote of one hundred and fifty-one to one hundred and twenty-nine.

**Struggle
in the
Senate.**

In Paris the *Republique Française*, Gambetta's organ, declared that, in view of the Senate's pretensions and the President's refusal to change his policy, it became the clear duty of the Chamber of Deputies to refuse to vote the budget. The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies, on November 21st, elected M. Gambetta president. In a speech on the occasion, M. Gambetta reminded the committee that they were armed with the sanction of the national sovereignty, for which it was their duty to secure a triumph.

**Gam-
betta's
Course.**

The refusal of President MacMahon to select a Republican Ministry prolonged the political crisis in France. The Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies refused to vote the direct taxes so long as the President retained a Ministry in which the Chambers had no confidence. The Republican majority, however, consented to vote the indirect taxes, but only by installments. The Ministry recently formed, not possessing the confidence of the country and the Chamber of Deputies, resigned on December 7th; and, after several ineffectual attempts to form a compromise Ministry, M. Dufaure undertook the formation of a Republican Ministry.

**Attitude
of the
Chamber
of
Deputies.**

**Dufaure's
Repub-
lican
Ministry.**

The triumph of the Republicans in the crisis of 1877 was a great one for France, and the country enjoyed some rest from political excitement under M. Dufaure's Republican Cabinet. On September 18, 1878, M. Gambetta made a speech at Romans denouncing clericalism, which, while applauded by the Radical Republican press, made the Moderate Republicans feel uneasy, as they feared that the enemies of the Republic would seize upon it as a pretext to alarm the conservative

**Political
Quiet.**

**Gam-
betta's
Speeches
at
Romans
and
Grenoble.**

classes by attempting to make it appear revolutionary. On October 12, 1878, M. Gambetta made a speech at Grenoble which greatly pleased the Moderate Republicans. He declared his belief in the necessity of the Senate, minimized his former utterances regarding clericalism and made a dexterous and effective appeal to the municipal delegates, who form a majority of the Senatorial electors, to return Republican candidates to the Senate. M. Gambetta predicted a Republican majority of twenty in the new French Senate.

Republican
Success
in the
Elections
for Com-
munal
Councils.

On Sunday, October 27, 1878, elections were held for municipal delegates in seventeen thousand Communes of France, resulting in great Republican gains, leaving no doubt of the Senatorial elections on the 5th of January, 1879. These elections settled the fact that the Republicans would carry forty-six of the seventy-five Senatorships to be filled, being a gain of twenty-eight. The French Assembly met early in November, 1878. After a long and animated debate and many calls to order, the Chamber of Deputies, on November 7, 1878, declared the election of M. Paul de Cassagnac, a violent and uncompromising Bonapartist, invalid.

Great
Republican
Victory
in the
Senatorial
Elections.

The Senatorial elections which took place in France on Sunday, January 5, 1879, resulted in a great Republican triumph. The Republican gains were far beyond the most sanguine expectations. Of forty-seven Conservative Senators whose terms expired, only thirteen were reelected. All the retiring Republican Senators were reelected. The general result showed the election of fifteen Conservatives and sixty-four Republicans, thus making the Republican majority in the Senate about fifty-seven. Second ballots were necessary in the Departments of Haute-Garonne and Landes. The Paris press agreed that the result of the elections was a crushing blow to the Bonapartists and a great triumph for the Moderate Republicans.

Republican
Organization
of the
Assembly.

The French Assembly reassembled on January 14, 1879. M. Jules Grévy, the Republican leader, was reelected President of the Chamber of Deputies almost unanimously. Three of the Vice-Presidents were Republicans and one was a Conservative. On the following day, January 15, 1879, Louis Joseph Martel, a Republican Senator, was elected President of the Senate by a majority of seventy-two.

Ministerial
Crisis.

A Cabinet crisis was now imminent at Versailles. On January 14, 1879, General Borel, Minister of War, resigned, and General Gresley was appointed his successor. The Radical Republicans demanded the formation of a new Cabinet. The Republican Union opposed the Ministerial program. When the Ministerial declaration was read in the Assembly it was coldly received in the Chamber of Deputies, but was applauded by the Republican Senators. The political situation in France was now regarded as critical, and the opposition of the Re-

publicans to the appointment of General Gresley as Minister of War was very strong.

The Ministerial crisis in France continued for several days. The debate in the Chamber of Deputies on the Cabinet question began on January 20, 1879. The Conservatives had resolved to abstain from voting. The Moderate Republicans seemed disposed to support the Cabinet, but the Radical Republicans appeared inclined to oppose the Ministry. The Republicans had prepared two orders of the day; one expressing confidence in the Ministry, to be brought forward if the declaration of M. Dufaure was satisfactory; and the other expressing a want of confidence, should the Ministerial statement appear insufficient. These orders were intrusted to M. Jules Ferry. Among the Republican majority there was a desire to support the Ministry if the declaration should prove sufficient. The debate in the Chamber of Deputies was opened by M. Senard, a veteran Republican, who opposed the Ministerial program. M. Dufaure, President of the Ministry, replied, defending his policy. M. Madier de Montjau, a Radical Republican, made a bitter attack on the Ministry, and was followed by M. Floquet, the orator of the Republican Union, who made a mild speech in favor of a Ministry representing all sections of the Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies. A suspension of the sitting of the Chamber followed, during which the government effected a compromise with the Radical Republicans, thus securing a majority for the Ministry. In consequence of this result, M. Jules Ferry offered his motion expressing confidence in the Ministry, and the motion was adopted by a vote of two hundred and twenty-three to one hundred and twenty-one. On January 23, 1879, M. Teisserenc de Bort resigned the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

**The
Minis-
terial
Question
in the
Chamber
of
Deputies.**

**The
Ministry
Sus-
tained.**

At a Cabinet Council at Versailles, on January 28, 1879, President MacMahon signed a decree making changes in the magistracy, but he refused to assent to any changes in the great military commands, and then quitted the Council. This refusal of the President produced the greatest excitement in France. In the Chamber of Deputies, on January 30, 1879, M. Jules Grévy, the President of the Chamber, amid profound silence, read a letter from President MacMahon, announcing his resignation of the Presidency of the French Republic.

**President
Mac-
Mahon's
Resigna-
tion.**

M. Grévy then read the articles of the Constitution applicable to the situation and announced that the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies would meet together in Congress at 4:30 p. m. The sitting was then suspended. The two Chambers met in Congress at the appointed hour; and M. Martel, President of the Senate, presided over the Congress and opened the proceedings by again reading President MacMahon's letter of resignation and the articles of the Constitution, amid profound

**Election
of Jules
Grévy as
Presi-
dent.**

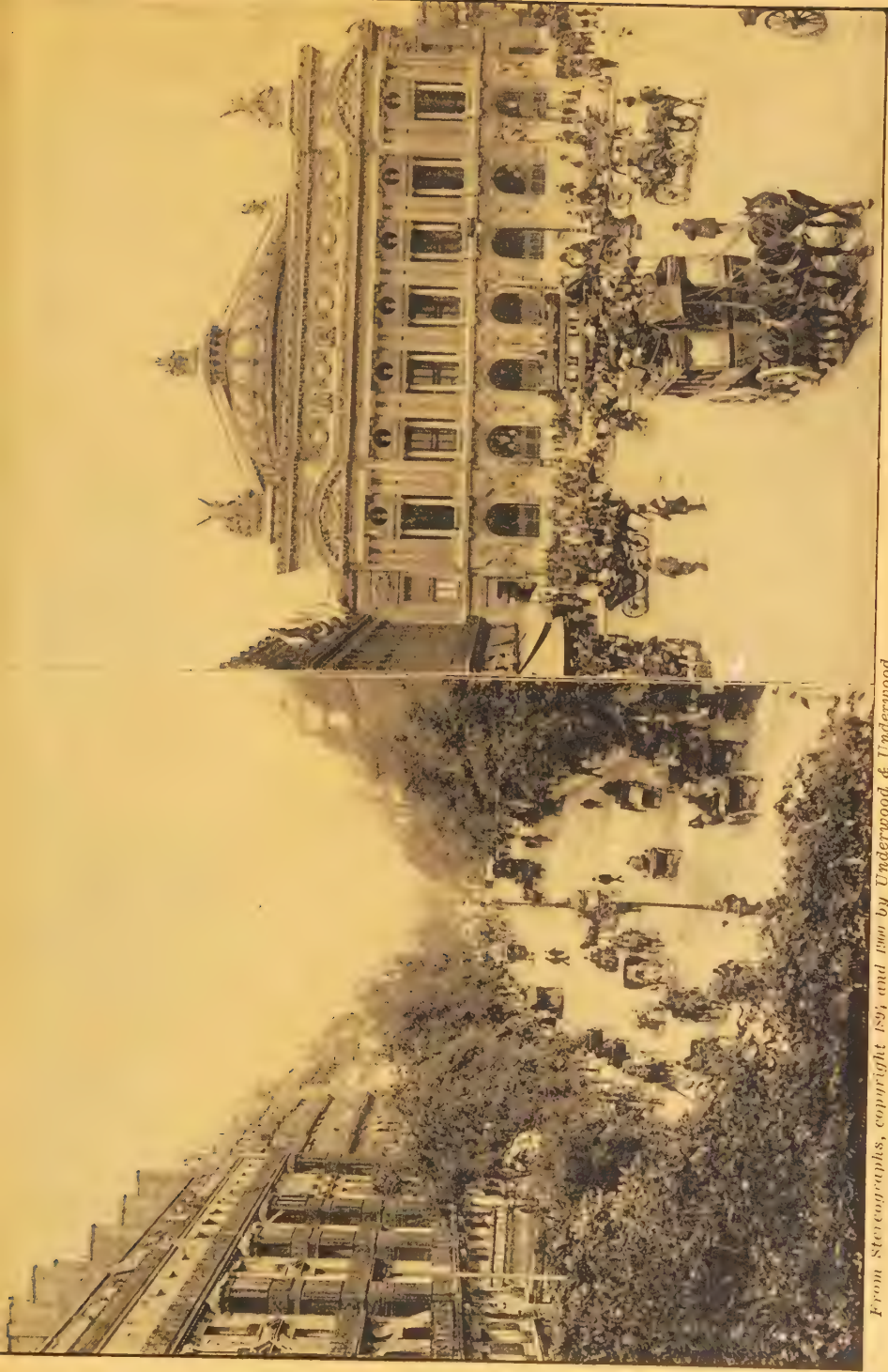
silence. M. de Gavardie, a Senator, amid shouts of disapprobation, asked whether the Congress accepted the resignation of President MacMahon. The Congress set this inquiry aside by voting the previous question by a large majority. The Congress, after appointing tellers, proceeded at five o'clock to vote for President of the Republic. Of the seven hundred and thirteen Senators and Deputies, six hundred and seventy voted. M. Jules Grévy obtained five hundred and thirty-six votes and General de Chanzy received ninety-nine. M. Grévy was accordingly declared elected and was proclaimed President of the French Republic for the term of seven years. Forty-three blank voting papers were deposited. M. Dufaure, the President of the Ministry, and Victor Hugo were loudly cheered when they cast their votes; while the Duke de Broglie, Baragnon, Buffet and other Monarchists were hooted. The result was announced at 7:45 p. m. Amid a perfect frenzy of enthusiasm, the Republican Senators and Deputies and the public in the galleries, rising in a body, repeatedly shouted: "Vive la République!"

Congrat-
ulations
to
President
Grévy.

Shortly afterward the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies resumed their separate sittings. M. Bethmont took the chair in the Chamber of Deputies and read a letter from M. Jules Grévy, who expressed the profound regret with which he resigned his seat as a Deputy and thanked his colleagues for the sympathy with which they had honored and would continue to honor him. In the evening of the same day, January 30, 1879, Ex-President MacMahon visited President Grévy and congratulated him upon his election. The interview was most courteous. The same evening the Ministers congratulated President Grévy and collectively tendered their resignations; but M. Grévy expressed a hope that they would continue in office, at least provisionally. A notification of M. Grévy's election to the Presidency of the French Republic was telegraphed to all foreign governments the same night.

General
Satisfac-
tion at
Grévy's
Election.

The day after M. Grévy's election to the Presidency of the French Republic, January 31, 1879, M. Gambetta was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies by three hundred and fourteen votes out of four hundred and five. In the morning of the same day a Cabinet Council was held at M. Grévy's private residence. There was a general feeling of gratification throughout France at the issue of the crisis, and flags were flying in many parts of Paris. The Paris press, on the morning of January 31, 1879, congratulated the country upon the consolidation of the Republic. The *Journal de Debats* said: "The Republic has passed through a formidable crisis and has emerged from it more firmly consolidated." The *Republique Française* said: "What has passed may be summed up by saying, since yesterday we have a Republic." The London press unanimously congratulated France upon the change in the Presidency, and the Berlin press also generally approved of M.



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NEW PARIS

Left: Grand Boulevard

Right: Façade of Grand Opera House

Grévy's election. On February 4, 1879, a new Cabinet, with M. Waddington at its head, was constituted.

**Waddington's
Ministry.**

SECTION XIII.—RUSSIA'S CONQUESTS IN CENTRAL ASIA (A. D. 1855–1881).

EVER since the overthrow of the Tartar power by the Czars of Muscovy, Russia has steadily extended her conquests eastward into Central Asia. At first her object was simply vengeance on the barbarous Mongol tribes that had held her in subjection for so long a period, as well as the extension of her territory. Afterward these conquests in Central Asia became necessary to Russia to provide a market for her manufactures, which had no sale in Europe on account of their inferior quality. The steppes between the Ural and the Irtysh were occupied by small tribes of wandering Kirghiz, who attacked the Russian frontier and forced Russia to drive them into the interior of the steppes. This irregular warfare continued two centuries.

**Russia's
Eastward
Con-
quests.**

In the reign of the Czar Nicholas the steppes east of the Ural were annexed to the Russian Empire, and some outposts and settlements were established on the steppes and on the banks of the Sir Darya river beyond. The most important of these outposts was Fort Perovskiy, on the shore of the Sea of Aral; and under its protection Russia was enabled to launch two steamers on the Sea of Aral and to navigate that inland sea and a part of the Sir Darya.

**Russian
Outposts
and
Settle-
ments.**

The Khans of Khokand and Bokhara steadily opposed the Russian advances, and their combined forces repeatedly attacked the Russian outposts. In order to strengthen its position and to put a stop to these attacks of the Khans of the Tartar states of Turkestan, the Russian government resolved to construct a new line of outposts along the Sir Darya to the foot of the Thian-Shan mountains and Lake Issik-kul. This enterprise was delayed by the Crimean War, and it was not resumed until 1860, when Forts Viernoye and Kastek were constructed at the foot of the Thian-Shan range.

**New
Line of
Russian
Outposts.**

In 1863 two strong Russian detachments advanced into Central Asia and occupied the Khokand fortresses of Pishpek, Tokmak and Yeni-Kurgan. In June, 1864, the Russian detachment under Colonel Verefkin took Hazret-i-Turkestan; and about the same time the other Russian detachment under Colonel Tchernayeff captured Fort Auliet. In October, 1864, the two detachments, under Colonel Tchernayeff, entered Tchemkend.

**Russian
Capture
of
Khokand
For-
tresses.**

Russia then ordered her commanders in Turkestan to cease from further conquests for the time and to secure the territory already oc-

Attacks
on
Russian
Outposts
in
Central
Asia.

cupied by their forces; but this policy was prevented by the action of the Khans of Bokhara, Khokand and Khiva. These princes of Turkestan were alarmed by the proximity of the Russian outposts to their dominions; and accordingly they began a series of formidable attacks upon these outposts, thus forcing the Russian commanders to push their advance eastward in order to insure their own safety and commencing the wars which finally resulted in the Russian conquest of the Khanates of Turkestan.

General
Kauf-
mann's
Con-
quests of
Bokhara,
Khiva
and
Khokand.

In a war with the Khan of Bokhara the Russians took Tashkend in 1865 and Khojend in 1866, and in 1868 a Russian force under General Kaufmann captured Samarcand. In 1871 the Russians subdued Soongaria, which had fought itself independent of Chinese rule in 1864. Early in 1873 a war broke out between Russia and Khiva, and a Russian military expedition under General Kaufmann was sent against the Khivans. After several engagements, in which the Khivans were defeated, General Kaufmann entered the Khivan capital in triumph and dictated terms of peace to the terrified Khan of Khiva, June, 1873. In the fall of 1873 the Russians defeated the Turkomans. In the summer of 1875 hostilities broke out between Russia and Khokand. A Russian army under General Kaufmann invaded Khokand, defeated thirty thousand Khokand troops and captured the Khokand capital, September, 1875. At the same time the Khan of Khiva was defeated by General Kaufmann and was forced to cede the entire eastern coast of the Caspian Sea to Russia—an important military gain for Russia, as it enabled her to maintain constant and uninterrupted communication with her advanced posts by sea, river and rail from St. Petersburg. General Kaufmann completed the conquest of Khokand early in 1876, and the territory of that Khanate was annexed to the Russian Empire by an imperial ukase and was organized as a Russian province under the name of *Ferghana*.

General
Skobe-
leff's
Conquest
of the
Tekke-
Turko-
mans.

In the meantime a Russian expedition under General Lomakin was operating against the Turkomans in Central Asia; and on August 28, 1880, this expedition met with a disastrous repulse in a desperate attack on the Tekke-Turkomans at Geok-Tepe. In March, 1880, General Skobelev was appointed to command the Russian expedition against the Tekke-Turkomans. In July, 1880, General Skobelev started on a reconnoissance against the Tekke-Turkomans and destroyed provision stores near Geok-Tepe. After a brilliant and successful reconnoissance of nine days with the Tekke-Turkomans, July 13–22, 1880, General Skobelev gained signal advantages. On December 24, 1880, the Russians under General Skobelev were repulsed by the Tekke-Turkomans near Geok-Tepe; but on January 4, 1881, General Skobelev defeated the Tekke-Turkomans in a sanguinary engagement; and in April,

1881, the Tekke-Turkomans submitted, and General Skobeleff's expedition ended.

SECTION XIV.—TURKEY AND HER VASSAL STATE OF EGYPT (A. D. 1848–1898).

ABBAS PASHA had been governor of Cairo before the death of his uncle Ibrahim Pasha, in November, 1848, made him viceroy of Egypt. As governor of Cairo he had committed such cruelties that when Ibrahim Pasha became viceroy of Egypt he was exiled to Hedjaz, in Arabia. Abbas Pasha was a true Mussulman and sought to undo all the work of civilization that his predecessors had accomplished. He erected palaces and fortresses in the desert and was in the habit of shutting himself up in them for months at a time, neglecting his government during such absences. He abolished the educational institutions which his predecessors had established, and he disbanded the army on the ground of economy. He was an intense enemy to Europeans, discharging all of them who were in the service of the state and endeavoring to expel them from the country. He refused all concessions to the Europeans, with the exception of granting permission to an English company to construct a railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez.

Abbas Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt,
A. D.
1848–
1854.

His Enmity to Europeans.

In 1852 the Sultan of Turkey ordered Abbas Pasha to introduce the Tanzimat, or fundamental law of Turkey, into Egypt. This code granted greater liberties to the Egyptians than they had ever before enjoyed and diminished the autocratic power of the viceroy. Abbas Pasha at first declined to comply with the Sultan's order, but he was at length obliged to obey his suzerain's mandate. He came very near being called to account by the Sultan for his cruelties to his relatives, escaping only by his bribes of money at Constantinople. He furnished a contingent of fifteen thousand men to the Turkish army during the Crimean War. He died suddenly July 12, 1854, and is believed to have been assassinated by two Mamelukes in the service of a princess of his family whose life he had threatened.

His Submission to His Suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey.

Abbas Pasha was succeeded as viceroy of Egypt by SAID PASHA, the fourth son of Mehemet Ali. Said Pasha was a better and a wiser ruler than his immediate predecessor. He commenced his rule by diminishing the powers of the mudirs and the sheikhs-el-beled. He organized a new army and introduced a better system of conscription, established a more equitable system of taxation and permitted the sale of produce to other purchasers besides the government. He likewise undertook several important internal improvements, among which were the cleansing of the Mahmoudieh canal, which had become a fruitful source of

Said Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt,
A. D.
1854–
1863.

pestilence, and the continuation of the railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez. He likewise gave the first impetus to the construction of the Suez Canal, to one of the termini of which his name has been assigned, being called *Port Said*. At the close of the Crimean War he had a large army, which he employed in checking the raids of the Bedouins of the desert and in invading that portion of Nubia which had not yet been annexed to Egypt and of which he now assumed the protectorate. He died January 18, 1863.

His
Enlight-
ened
Measures
and
Public
Works.

Ismail
Pasha,
Viceroy
of Egypt,
A. D.
1863-
1879

Cotton
Culture.

Suez
Canal.

Hered-
itary
Success-
ion as
Viceroy.

Ismail
Pasha,
Khedive
of Egypt.

Ismail
Pasha's
Demands
Refused
by the
Sultan.

Strained
Relations.

Said Pasha was succeeded in the viceroyalty of Egypt by his nephew ISMAIL PASHA, who continued his uncle's reforms in a more enlightened and vigorous manner. The civil war in the United States had caused a great scarcity of cotton, and Ismail Pasha profited by the demand for that product to introduce its culture into Egypt. He fostered this new industry with such care and wisdom that Egypt has become one of the leading cotton markets of the world. He was an ardent friend and patron of the Suez Canal, which was completed and opened November 17, 1869, in the presence of a large and brilliant concourse of guests from every portion of the globe, and which was the work of the great French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps.

By the payment of a vast sum of money to the Ottoman Porte, Ismail Pasha obtained a reversal of the Mohammedan law of succession, by which the Egyptian viceroyalty was thenceforth to be transmitted from father to son. In 1866 he furnished a corps of thirty thousand men to the Ottoman Porte to suppress the Cretan rebellion, and soon afterward he voluntarily augmented the amount of his tribute, thus attesting his loyalty to his suzerain.

In 1867 Ismail Pasha obtained from the Ottoman Porte the right to make such laws as were necessary for the internal government of Egypt and to conclude treaties with foreign powers concerning general transit and postal affairs. He asked the Ottoman Porte to grant him the title of "Sovereign of the Land of Egypt," but received instead the title of *Khedive*, or viceroy.

Ismail Pasha afterward demanded for Egypt independent legislation and diplomatic representation to foreign governments. The sublime Porte now perceived that he was aiming at absolute independence of Turkish dominion and declined to concede his requests. Thereupon Ismail Pasha threatened to withdraw his troops from Candia or to seize that island for himself if the Sultan refused to concede his demands, and for a while a war seemed imminent between the Sultan and his ambitious vassal. The threatened struggle was averted by the intervention of the Great Powers of Europe, which forced the Khedive to relinquish his ambitious designs and to submit to the Sultan's authority.

In 1868 Ismail Pasha extended his dominion over the region of the Upper Nile. During the same year he undertook to negotiate a foreign loan and sent invitations to the European monarchs to attend the opening of the Suez Canal. These acts of the Khedive greatly offended the Ottoman Porte, as they were acts which an independent sovereign only had the right to do.

Ismail Pasha's Act of Offense to the Sultan.

The Porte therefore ordered the Khedive to reduce his army to thirty thousand men; to countermand his order for iron-clads and improved arms, which he had contracted for in France; to refrain thenceforth from all diplomatic acts and from contracting loans, and to submit his annual budget of expenditures at Constantinople for inspection and approval. The Khedive refused to obey the Sultan's orders and announced his intention of contracting loans whenever and wherever he pleased.

His Defiance of the Sultan's Orders.

The Sultan was about to send an ultimatum to the Khedive, but Great Britain and France induced him to wait until after the opening of the Suez Canal. No sooner were the festivities ended than the Sultan sent his ultimatum to the Khedive requiring him to choose between submission and war. As the European powers would not sustain the Khedive in his efforts for independence, Ismail Pasha announced his submission to the Sultan's will, December 9, 1869, thus for the time laying aside his schemes for independence.

His Forced Submission to the Sultan.

Ismail Pasha then devoted himself to the reduction of the region south of Nubia, as far as the sources of the Nile, under his dominion, and succeeded in that undertaking. In 1874 Darfur was conquered by his troops under the command of Colonel Gordon, a Scotchman in his service. The Khedive was also generally successful in several wars which he waged with Abyssinia, though his troops sustained several reverses in 1875 and 1876.

His Conquests and His Wars with Abyssinia

The Khedive drew a military cordon and opened roads for traffic through the other native territories. He intended to transform those regions into an agricultural district. He supplied the chiefs with seed and held them under obligation to furnish certain quantities of produce. Thus he made their stores of ivory, gums, hides, wax, gold, etc., more accessible; and he was enabled to secure the wealth of those regions for the benefit of Egypt by means of the railways and telegraphs which he rapidly built through Nubia, as well as by his control over the Red Sea and the Suez Canal.

His Material Improvement of the Conquered Region.

By these efforts to build up the prosperity of Egypt the Khedive won back the Sultan's favor; and the Sultan issued a firman, June 8, 1873, confirming the privileges which Ismail Pasha's predecessors had enjoyed and changing Egypt from a Turkish tributary dependency into an almost-independent sovereign kingdom. This firman authorized

Privileges Granted by the Turkish Sultan.

the Khedive to make laws and internal regulations; to organize every means of defense and to increase the number of his troops without limit; to contract commercial treaties with foreign powers; to conclude other treaties regulating the position of foreigners in Egypt and their intercourse with the Egyptian government and the Egyptian people; to contract loans in foreign countries in the name of the Egyptian government, and to have complete and absolute control of the finances of Egypt.

Acts
For-
bidden.

This firman forbade the Khedive to make treaties relating to political matters; prohibited him having agents accredited at foreign courts; required the money coined in Egypt to be coined in the Sultan's name; required the Turkish flag to be borne by the Egyptian army and navy, and forbade the building of iron-clad vessels for the Egyptian navy without the Sultan's permission. The Khedive retained the privilege of conferring military promotions up to the rank of colonel and civil grades to the rank of *rutbeh-i-sanich* only. The Khedive was also required to pay to the Sultan a tribute of one hundred and fifty thousand purses yearly.

Egyptian
Troops in
Turkish
Army.

At the opening of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 the Khedive sent a strong contingent of Egyptian troops to Europe for service in the Turkish army, thus fulfilling his duties as the Sultan's vassal.

Egypt's
Condition
under
Ismail
Pasha.

By doing so much for the internal improvement and material progress of Egypt, Ismail Pasha involved his country heavily in debt. This debt was held mostly by English and French bondholders. Besides the tribute which the Khedive paid annually to his suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey, and besides the regular expenditures for carrying on the government, Egypt was obliged to pay a heavy annual interest on her public debt. This crippled the resources of Egypt and hindered her material prosperity. Many of the civil and military offices in Egypt were held by foreigners, mostly Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans and Americans. A National party arose among the Egyptians, jealous of foreign influence; and the rallying cry of this party was: "Egypt for the Egyptians." On June 26, 1879, the Egyptian army forced Ismail Pasha to abdicate, whereupon his son TEWFIK PASHA became Khedive. At the same time Great Britain and France established a joint control over the finances of Egypt in the interest of the foreign bondholders.

Tewfik
Pasha,
A. D.
1879-
1892.

Arabi
Pasha's
Rebellion
and Its
Suppres-
sion
by the
British.

A military riot in Cairo, in September, 1881, compelled the Khedive to change his Ministry. In the spring of 1882 Arabi Pasha, the Khedive's Minister of War, arrayed the Egyptian army against the Khedive and foreign influence in Egypt; and Europeans were mobbed in Alexandria, about three hundred being massacred, June 11, 1882. This brought on British intervention and the bombardment and destruc-

tion of the forts at Alexandria by the British fleet under Admiral Seymour, July 11-13, 1882; when Arabi Pasha treacherously evacuated the city under protection of a flag of truce, while two thousand Europeans and Christians were massacred by the lower classes, Bedouins and released convicts, and the city was fired and a great part of it destroyed; many of the plunderers, incendiaries and assassins being caught and shot by British marines who were landed to restore order. Fifteen thousand British troops under Sir Garnet Wolseley—among whom were six thousand Hindoos—were sent to Egypt to suppress Arabi Pasha's rebellion; and after many conflicts, the most important of which were the sanguinary battles of Ramses, August 24, 1882; Kassassin, August 30 and September 9, 1882, and Tel-el-Kebir, September 13, 1882; in the last of which Arabi Pasha, at the head of twenty-six thousand men, was completely overthrown by thirteen thousand British and Hindoo troops under General Sir Garnet Wolseley, after a conflict of twenty minutes, with the loss of fifteen hundred men killed and wounded, while the British lost nearly four hundred. The British occupied Cairo the next day, September 14, 1882; and the Khedive and his Ministry and the British Consul-General entered his capital on September 25, 1882, amid the salute of the British Royal Artillery and the playing of the Egyptian national anthem by the British bands, and in the presence of one hundred and fifty thousand spectators. Arabi Pasha was exiled to Ceylon.

The chief result of the British suppression of Arabi Pasha's rebellion against the Khedive Tewfik Pasha was the British control over the affairs of Egypt which has existed ever since. Though Egypt is still a vassal state of Turkey, that land, so renowned in history, has ever since been practically under British protection and supremacy. Egypt's next great struggle was with the new Mohammedan leader, El Mahdi, the False Prophet of the Soudan, who annihilated the Egyptian armies in Kordofan and Nubia in 1882 and 1883, and whose fanatical warriors resisted the British and Egyptian military forces for sixteen years, from 1882 to 1898; the account of which will be related in the later British history. Tewfik Pasha died January 7, 1892, and was succeeded as Khedive of Egypt by his eldest son, **ABBAS PASHA II.**

**Egypt
under
British
Protection.**

**Struggle
with El
Mahdi.**

**Abbas
Pasha
II.**

SECTION XV.—EASTERN QUESTION AND RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877-78 (A. D. 1875-1879).

In July, 1875, the peasants of Herzegovina and Bosnia, provinces in the West of European Turkey, rose in rebellion against the Ottoman government to resist the collection of taxes by the officials of the Porte. The insurrection became quite formidable, and fears were entertained

**Rebellion
in Her-
zegovina
and
Bosnia
against
the
Turks.**

that the peace of Europe was jeopardized. The consuls of the Great European Powers met at Mostar, in September, 1875, and endeavored to bring about a pacification by inducing the Porte to grant needed reforms and reasonable concessions to the Herzegovinians and Bosnians; while, at the same time, they tried to induce the insurgents to submit, but failed. Many engagements of an unimportant character and without decisive results occurred during the summer and autumn of 1875 and during the following winter and spring. Cettigne, Trebigne and Niesic were the scenes of stubborn conflicts and close sieges by the insurgents; but the result of the struggle continued indecisive. The Turks relieved Trebigne in January, 1876, and Niesic in March, 1876. The Bosnian insurgents committed frightful atrocities and fought bloody actions with the Turks.

**Turkish
Financial
Troubles.**

In October, 1875, the Turkish government failed to meet the interest on its debt, the principal of which was more than nine hundred million dollars. The Porte issued a firman promising speedy payment of half the interest and making provision for the payment of the other half—a promise which was not redeemed.

**Andrassy
Note
Rejected
by the
Insur-
gents.**

Count Andrassy, who had succeeded Baron von Beust as Chancellor of Austria-Hungary in 1871, drew up a note relative to reforms in Turkey, which was approved by Russia, Italy, France, Germany and Great Britain, and which was communicated to the Porte, January 31, 1876. The Porte promised to introduce the reforms asked for by Count Andrassy's note, but the insurgents of Herzegovina and Bosnia rejected the reforms because they were not consulted in the arrangement. Toward the close of March, 1876, an armistice was concluded between the contending parties.

**Murder
of the
French
and
German
Consuls
at
Salonica.**

During a riot at Salonica, May 6, 1876, between the Christians and the Mohammedans, the French and German consuls were murdered by the exasperated Moslem populace. In compliance with the demands of the French and German ambassadors at Constantinople, the Porte executed the murderers, indemnified the families of the victims, gave guarantees against similar atrocities in the future and offered a solemn salute to the French and German flags. The funerals of the murdered consuls took place at Salonica on May 19, 1876, with great ceremonies.

**Berlin
Confer-
ence and
Gortscha-
koff
Memo-
randum.**

The three Imperial Chancellors—Prince Gortschakoff of Russia, Prince Bismarck of Germany and Count Andrassy of Austria-Hungary—met in conference at Prince Bismarck's residence at Berlin, May 11, 1876, and agreed upon a memorandum drawn up by Prince Gortschakoff for the pacification of the Ottoman Empire upon the terms of Count Andrassy's note. France and Italy concurred in the results of the conference, but Great Britain objected because the memorandum proposed a threat of armed intervention by the Six Great Powers in

case their friendly mediation failed to effect a pacification. The Herzegovinians and Bosnians rejected the proposition of the Berlin conference of the three Imperial Chancellors, and the Porte asked for a modification of the memorandum before it gave its acceptance to its propositions. As the Berlin memorandum thus failed it was withdrawn.

On May 29, 1876, the Turkish Ministers, sustained by a decree of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, the spiritual head of the Mohammedan Church, met at the Grand Vizier's residence and drew up a petition to Sultan Abdul Aziz entreating him to abdicate his throne in order to save the Ottoman Empire from ruin. The next day, May 30, 1876, there was an immense popular demonstration in Constantinople. The trade guilds, headed by the Softas, marched to the Seraglio and compelled Abdul Aziz to abdicate in favor of his nephew, who was then proclaimed Sultan with the title of AMURATH V., or MURAD V. The deposed Abdul Aziz was confined in the Tchcran Palace, where he was found dead several days later, June 4, 1876; believed at the time to have committed suicide, but a few years afterward discovered to have been murdered. His remains were honored with imposing funeral obsequies and were placed in the mausoleum of Sultan Mahmoud II. as their permanent resting-place.

Assassination of Sultan Abdul Aziz.

Sultan Amurath V., A. D. 1876.

Hussein Avni Pasha, the Turkish Minister of War, and Reschid Pasha, Minister of Foreign Affairs, were shot and killed at the residence of the Grand Vizier, June 15, 1876, by Hassan Bey, a Circassian officer in the Turkish army, in revenge for his recent imprisonment for refusing to go to Bagdad, where he had been assigned to duty. The vacant offices were immediately filled, and the assassin was hanged June 20, 1876.

Assassination of Turkish Ministers.

From the time of the outbreak of the Herzegovinian insurrection the tributary Principality of Servia had maintained a warlike attitude toward its suzerain, the Ottoman Porte, and had shown a disposition to espouse the cause of the insurgents of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Porte in the meantime had anticipated the warlike designs of Servia by sending troops to the Servian frontier, and both parties were ready for hostilities. At the beginning of July, 1876, Prince Milan of Servia declared war against his suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey, alleging as his reason the threatening attitude of the Ottoman Porte toward Servia and its failure to satisfy the demands of Bosnia. At the same time Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, another tributary vassal of the Sultan of Turkey, entered the field against the Ottoman Porte in support of the cause of Herzegovina. Thus there were four Turkish provinces in open rebellion against the Porte—Herzegovina, Bosnia, Montenegro and Servia.

Turko-Servian War.

Alliance of Servia and Montenegro.

**Turkish
Suc-
cesses.**

The war which now opened was of the most sanguinary character. During the whole of July, August and September, 1876, the struggle raged fiercely; and battles between the Turks and the Servians were of almost daily occurrence. The valleys of the Drina, the Morava and the Timok were drenched with blood; and Izvor, Derbent, Saitschar, Gurgosovatz, Paratchin, Pandirola, Podgoritza, Alexinatz and Deligrad were repeatedly the scenes of sanguinary conflicts. The Servian armies, commanded by Generals Tchernayeff, Leschjanin, Antitch, Olympics, Horvatovich, Paulovich and others, resisted with great bravery; but the Turkish forces, under the command of Osman Pasha, Dervish Pasha, Hafiz Pasha, Suleiman Pasha, Kerim Pasha, Mehemet Ali Pasha and others, were successful in nearly every encounter; but in Montenegro and Herzegovina the Ottoman troops under Mukhtar Pasha and Selim Pasha suffered a series of calamitous defeats. Finally, in September, 1876, the Servians were reduced to such straits that the Servian government became anxious for peace.

**Turkish
Atroci-
ties in
Bulgaria.**

A rebellion having broken out in Bulgaria in May, 1876, the Porte sent Circassians and Bashi-Bazouks to subdue the revolt. These irregular troops committed the most fiendish atrocities upon the Bulgarians after the suppression of the insurrection, massacring men, women and children without discrimination and in the most cruel manner. According to the reports of English newspaper correspondents and the American Consul, Mr. Schuyler, twelve thousand Bulgarians fell victims to the savage fury of the Circassians and Bashi-Bazouks, and sixty villages were reduced to ashes. These atrocities aroused the most intense indignation in England. Immense public meetings were held in every part of that kingdom to denounce the outrages, and in London several monster demonstrations were held. The British press called loudly for the interference of the government to compel the Turks to respect the usages of civilized warfare; and the British government, under the pressure of public sentiment, instituted measures to secure an investigation of the Bulgarian outrages. An animated debate occurred in the British House of Commons, and Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry was censured severely for its indifference. Mr. Baring, the Secretary of the British embassy at Constantinople, in his report, estimated the number massacred in and around Philippopolis at twelve thousand. The British government called upon the Ottoman Porte to punish the perpetrators of the outrages, and received promises that justice should be done; but the Porte was slow in fulfilling its promises.

**Indigna-
tion in
England.**

**Turkey's
Insol-
vency.**

In July, 1876, the Porte was obliged to declare its insolvency by announcing that all payments on account of the Turkish national debt must be suspended until after the subjugation of its revolted provinces. As almost the whole of this debt was due to people in Western Europe,

chiefly British subjects, the failure of Turkey to meet her obligations greatly weakened the friendship which Great Britain had thus far felt for her.

Sultan Amurath V. was so hopelessly an imbecile that a Council of Ministers and great dignitaries of the Ottoman Empire, in conformity with a decree of the Sheikh-ul-Islam, proclaimed his deposition, August 31, 1876, and declared his brother ABDUL HAMID II. Sultan of Turkey.

**Sultan
Abdul
Hamid
II.**

In consequence of the Turkish victories, the Princes of Servia and Montenegro made overtures for peace; and their demand was sustained by Great Britain. Sir Henry George Elliott, the British ambassador at Constantinople, presented to the Porte a demand for an armistice of one month, to be followed by negotiations for peace. Great Britain's demand was sustained by the other foreign ambassadors at the Turkish capital. The Porte refused to grant an armistice, but expressed its willingness to treat for peace. Turkey's refusal to grant an armistice threatened fresh complications in the East, as Russia seemed disposed to insist on the demand for an armistice. Finally, about the middle of September, 1876, both Turkey and Servia agreed upon a suspension of hostilities for ten days, afterward prolonged eight days, and negotiations for peace were opened; but Turkey's conditions were rejected by both Servia and Montenegro, and thus the negotiations failed.

**Peace
Over-
tures and
Short
Armistice.**

Terms of peace proposed by the Great European Powers were rejected by Turkey, and the relations between Russia and Turkey were daily becoming more precarious. The Russian government was unable to restrain the warlike ardor of its subjects, who were in hearty sympathy with the Servians. Great Britain was jealous of Russian interference in Turkish affairs, and her interests demanded the upholding of the Ottoman Empire; but the English people, whose indignation had been aroused by the Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria, opposed the Eastern policy of the Earls of Beaconsfield and Derby. Germany seemed disposed to support Russia's position, but Austria-Hungary and Italy opposed it. The Great Powers made continuous efforts for an armistice. Servia, as well as Turkey, rejected the peace proposals of the European Powers. Russia proposed a joint intervention of the Great Powers in Turkish affairs; but France, Great Britain and Austria-Hungary declined the proposition. Russia now seemed disposed to openly support Servia, and a war between Russia and Turkey appeared imminent. The Porte proposed a six months' armistice, but Russia opposed this and demanded a six weeks' armistice instead.

**Peace
Negotiations.**

**Relations
of Russia
and
Turkey.**

On October 12, 1876, Turkey formally rejected the peace propositions of the Great European Powers. Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, issued a circular to the other Great Powers, opposing

**Russia's
Menace
against
Turkey.**

a six months' armistice and demanding a six weeks' armistice instead. Russia threatened an invasion of Turkey in case of a refusal of a short armistice. War between Russia and Turkey appeared inevitable, and much uneasiness prevailed in all the great European capitals. War risks were required in London, and Lloyds were called upon to have steamers ready to transport troops. Great Britain was making warlike preparations, and the British fleets in the Mediterranean were under sailing orders. Much bitter feeling against Russia was manifested in England, the recent excitement on account of the Bulgarian atrocities having died away. Russian troops were concentrating at Bender and at Tiflis, preparatory to invading both European and Asiatic Turkey; while the Ottoman Porte was concentrating two large armies, one in European Turkey and the other in Asiatic Turkey, to resist Russian invasion.

**Warlike
Prepara-
tions.**

**Russia's
Ultima-
tum.**

**Armis-
tice.**

**Proposed
Peace
Confer-
ence.**

**The
Czar's
Speech at
Moscow.**

**Russia's
Warlike
Demon-
strations.**

France and Germany supported Russia's proposal for a six weeks' armistice. On the day that the Turks captured Alexinatz, October 31, 1876, General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, presented an ultimatum to the Porte, demanding the acceptance of a two months' armistice and a suspension of hostilities within forty-eight hours, threatening, in case of a refusal, to break off all diplomatic relations with Turkey and to leave Constantinople with the whole Russian embassy. The Porte consented to the Russian demands, and the armistice was signed November 1, 1876, thus suspending hostilities between the Turks and the Servians. Montenegro also accepted the armistice. Upon the conclusion of the armistice the Great Powers agreed upon holding a peace conference at Constantinople to settle the Eastern question. The conference was summoned on the basis of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

On November 10, 1876, the Czar Alexander II. of Russia delivered an important speech at Moscow, in reply to an address from the citizens, declaring that he would demand guarantees from the Ottoman Porte and threatening a declaration of war in case of a refusal of such guarantees. The speech was received with enthusiastic cheers. The Czar's declarations were applauded everywhere throughout the Russian Empire. In the midst of the preparations for the peace conference the most warlike demonstrations were going on in Russia. Great Britain was excited by distrust of Russia, and war risks were taken in London. Great activity prevailed at the Woolwich arsenal, and in the dock-yards the iron-clads were prepared for immediate service, while all soldiers on furlough in Ireland were ordered to join their regiments. Russian troops were concentrating in South-western Russia and in the Caucasus, ready to invade both European and Asiatic Turkey; while the Porte was concentrating two large armies to resist Russian invasion.

The Czar, in an address to the generals and officers of the Russian army, at a military review in St. Petersburg, on November 15, 1876, said: "Gentlemen, let us wish the best success to the commanders of our armies." The Czar's words were received with enthusiastic cheering. All freight traffic was stopped on the railways in South-western Russia. A Russian army was rapidly concentrating at Odessa. A Russian war loan of one hundred million roubles in bank notes was issued by the State Bank of St. Petersburg, by authority of an imperial ukase, to be received in subscriptions, bearing interest at ten per cent. The Czar, in an interview with Lord Loftus, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, on November 2, 1876, gave assurances that Russia would not seize Constantinople or attempt to conquer India.

The
Czar's
Speech at
St. Pe-
tersburg.

Russian
War
Loan.

In the meantime the Ottoman Porte had appointed a commission to frame a constitution for the Ottoman Empire. The commission concluded its labors in the latter part of November, 1876, and sent a draft of the document to the Grand Vizier. The text of the new constitution was communicated to the Great European Powers. The new constitution was officially promulgated with great solemnity, December 23, 1876. The constitution declared the Ottoman Empire one and indivisible and provided for a legislative assembly comprising a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The principle of Ministerial responsibility was established. On November 23, 1876, the Sultan issued a firman abolishing slavery in the Turkish dominions.

Turkey's
New
Constitu-
tion.

In the meantime, while Russia and Turkey were making warlike demonstrations, preparations for the peace conference at Constantinople were being rapidly pushed. The British plenipotentiary, Lord Salisbury, while on his way to Constantinople, stopped at Paris and Rome and had an interview with Prince Bismarck at Berlin. Lord Salisbury also stopped at Vienna. Popular sentiment in England had compelled Lord Beaconsfield to reverse his policy on the Eastern question, and Great Britain was in full accord with Russia on the guarantees to be required of the Ottoman Porte. France, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary also supported the Russian demands. An interview between Lord Salisbury and General Ignatieff showed a complete agreement between them on the points to be demanded of the Porte. At a preliminary meeting of the conference on December 11, 1876, under the presidency of the Russian ambassador, the result showed a unanimity among the plenipotentiaries of the Great European Powers. General Ignatieff appeared very conciliatory.

Peace
Confer-
ence at
Constan-
tinople.

The conference began its regular sessions on December 23, 1876. The Turkish plenipotentiary, Safvet Pasha, presided; and in his opening address he declared that the Porte was ready to grant reforms to all its subjects. In all the proceedings of the conference the Great

Turkey's
Opposi-
tion
to the
Proposals
of the
Powers.

Powers were unanimous. Russia became more conciliatory and Turkey more defiant. The Porte rejected all the proposals of the European Powers and met every proposition with a counter-proposal. It gradually became apparent that Midhat Pasha, the Grand Vizier, had outwitted the European diplomatists. Lord Salisbury, in an interview with Midhat Pasha, urged him to accept the European proposals, but without success. In a subsequent interview between Lord Salisbury and the Sultan the latter objected to the European demands; whereupon Lord Salisbury directed the British fleet to leave Turkish waters, in order to show the Turks that Great Britain would not support them in resisting the united will of Europe. On December 30, 1876, the armistice existing between Turkey and Servia was prolonged to March 1, 1877.

Turkey's
Con-
tinued
Refusal
to Accept
the
Proposals
of the
Powers.

The Great Powers at length agreed to consider the Turkish counter-proposals. Russia receded from her original position, while Turkey appeared more defiant and refused to discuss the European propositions. An angry interview occurred between Lord Salisbury and Midhat Pasha on January 2, 1877. On January 6, 1877, the conference refused to make any further concessions, while the Turks remained inflexible. The British, German and Russian plenipotentiaries unsuccessfully urged the Grand Vizier to accept the proposals of the European Powers. On January 12, 1877, Baron von Werther, the German plenipotentiary, declared that the Great Powers would make no further concessions to Turkey. On January 15, 1877, the European Powers relinquished many of the contested points; but Lord Salisbury, the British plenipotentiary, and Sir Henry George Elliott, the British ambassador at the Turkish capital, announced that they had orders to leave Constantinople if the Porte rejected the modified demands of the Powers. All the other European plenipotentiaries made similar declarations. Safvet Pasha, the Turkish plenipotentiary, replied that the conditions of the Powers would have to be submitted to the Porte before a final answer could be given.

Turkey's
Final
Rejection
of the
Proposals
of the
Powers.

On January 18, 1877, the Grand Council of the Ottoman Empire, among whom were sixty Christians, unanimously rejected the proposals of the European Powers and declared that the Turkish counter-proposals were the only subjects which would further be considered. The Council disregarded Midhat Pasha's appeal for peace and replied with loud shouts of "War rather than foreign interference! Death before dishonor!" The result of the Turkish Grand Council's action was that Lord Salisbury and General Ignatieff refused to have anything further to do with the negotiations, and the plenipotentiaries of the Six Great European Powers accordingly withdrew from Constantinople. Thus the conference failed.

In the latter part of January, 1877, the Ottoman Porte opened negotiations for peace with Servia and Montenegro. Both Russia and Great Britain advised Prince Milan of Servia to make peace. Midhat Pasha offered conciliatory terms to the Servians, who for some time had been anxious for peace. The negotiations progressed slowly, but were successfully completed in the early part of March, 1877.

**Turko-Servian
Peace
Treaty.**

Midhat Pasha's progressive policy and his desire for peace were very obnoxious to the reactionary party in Turkey and caused his fall. On February 5, 1877, he was dismissed from office and banished from Constantinople by order of the Sultan, and Edhem Pasha was appointed Grand Vizier.

**Midhat
Pasha's
Exile.**

On February 4, 1877, Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, issued a circular note to the Russian ambassadors at the courts of the other Great Powers, declaring the Ottoman Empire a menace to Europe and to the sentiments of humanity and Christianity, and endeavoring to ascertain what course the other Powers intended to pursue in consequence of Turkey's defiant attitude.

**Prince
Gortscha-
koff's
Circular.**

In the meantime the public mind in England was excited intensely on the Eastern question. Mr. Gladstone made important speeches at Taunton and Frome, denouncing the course of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Derby in not taking vigorous measures to act in concert with Russia in putting a stop to the horrible atrocities of the Turks toward the Christian inhabitants of the Ottoman Empire. Parliament opened February 8, 1877; and the queen's speech alluded in guarded terms to the Eastern question, expressing a hope for a satisfactory solution of the vexed problem. On February 16, 1877, Mr. Gladstone and others made speeches criticising Lord Beaconsfield and his Ministry severely. The Ministry avowed its neutrality on the Eastern question. An animated debate occurred in the House of Lords on February 20, 1877. The Duke of Argyle attacked the policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry, but the Earl of Derby defended the Ministry's action. On a test vote the House of Lords sustained Lord Beaconsfield's Cabinet.

**Great
Britain's
Attitude.**

During March, 1877, General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, visited the capitals of the other Great European Powers on a mission from the Czar, the result of which was the signing of a protocol consenting to Russia's intervention in Turkish affairs.

**General
Ignatieff's
Mission.**

In the meantime both Russia and Turkey continued their warlike preparations. Russia was hurrying troops forward to the Pruth, and Turkish troops were moving toward the Danube. The Russians were still mobilizing an additional number of army corps on the frontiers; and by the close of February, 1877, there were two hundred thousand Russian troops ready to invade Turkish territory. The Turks had concentrated an army of about seventy-five thousand men on the Danube

**Warlike
Prepara-
tions of
Russia
and
Turkey.**

to resist Russian invasions. Both Russia and Turkey were buying arms and munitions of war in the United States. On March 3, 1877, an imperial ukase was issued at St. Petersburg directing the organization of nine additional army corps. About the middle of March, Russia was preparing to put one million men into the field.

**Turkish
Parliament.**

The Turkish Parliament assembled March 19, 1877, and was opened by Sultan Abdul Hamid II. in person. The speech from the throne was read by the First Secretary of the Sultan. A considerable number of Senators and Deputies were present. The Sultan's speech recapitulated the events of the Eastern crisis and indulged in a profusion of promises.

**Protocol
Rejected
by
Turkey.**

Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy and France readily signed the Russian protocol submitted for their acceptance by General Ignatieff during his mission to the great European capitals. Great Britain at first refused to sign; but, after much diplomatic negotiation, the efforts of General Ignatieff and Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador at London, were successful; and on March 31, 1877, Great Britain, through her Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Lord Derby, signified her acceptance of the protocol. Russia then submitted the protocol to the Ottoman Porte for its approval, but Turkey rejected the document as inconsistent with the dignity and independence of the Ottoman Empire.

**The
Czar's
Mani-
festo and
Gortscha-
koff's
Circular.**

Upon the rejection of the Russian protocol by the Ottoman Porte, the Czar Alexander II., who arrived at the Russian headquarters at Kischeneff on April 2, 1877, issued a manifesto reciting the grievances of the Christians in Turkey, arraigning the Ottoman Porte for obstinacy in resisting the European demands and declaring his purpose of espousing the cause of the oppressed Christians in Turkey. At the same time Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, published a circular notifying the other Great Powers that, as Turkey had rejected every demand of Europe for the amelioration of the Christians in Turkey, Russia was obliged to undertake the amelioration of the Porte's Christian subjects.

**Turkey's
Reply.**

On April 25, 1877, the Ottoman Porte replied to the Czar's manifesto, charging Russia with the design of attacking the independence of Turkey and calling upon the other Great Powers to enforce the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. Sultan Abdul Hamid II. issued a patriotic address to his army, exhorting it to uphold the independence of the Osmanli and to defend the land won by their ancestors.

**Russian
Invasion
of
Turkey.**

Immediately after the rejection of the Russian protocol by the Ottoman Porte, the Russian armies advanced into Turkish territory, both in Europe and Asia. The Russian Army of the Danube, three hundred and twenty-five thousand strong, under the command of the Grand Duke Nicholas, advanced from Kischeneff, in South-western Russia,

into the Sultan's tributary Principality of Roumania, which was friendly to Russia. At the same time the Russian Army of the Caucasus, one hundred and seventy-five thousand strong, under the Grand Duke Michael and General Loris Melikoff, advanced from Alexandropol, in Georgia, into the Turkish province of Armenia, the Christian population of which was friendly to Russia.

Hostilities in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-'78 began in Asiatic Turkey. The Russians under the Grand Duke Michael were defeated by the Turks at Tchurukson, near Batoum, on the south-eastern coast of the Black Sea, near the Russian frontier, with the loss of eight hundred men, April 25, 1877. The Russians were again repulsed at Batoum two days later, April 27, 1877. The Turkish navy bombarded Poti, Chefketil and Fort Nicholas, in Russian territory, on the eastern coast of the Black Sea.

General Loris Melikoff with forty thousand Russians advanced against Kars, and defeated sixty thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha before that strong fortress, April 29 and 30, 1877. The Russians captured Bayazid, at the foot of Mount Ararat, May 1, 1877; the Turkish garrison having evacuated the fortress. The Russians were repulsed in an attack on Batoum on May 11, 1877, with the loss of four thousand men.

Melikoff's operations were directed against Erzeroum, the capital of Armenia, which Mukhtar Pasha prepared to defend. The Russians captured Ardahan with its fortifications, its citadel, sixty cannon and immense stores of provisions and ammunition, after a fierce bombardment, May 17, 1877; the Turkish garrison having evacuated the town and fled, leaving their dead and wounded behind them.

In the meantime the Russians prosecuted the siege of Kars with vigor, but they were repulsed in two attacks on the fortress on May 8, 1877. The Turks were repulsed in an attack on the Cossacks at Kars, May 17, 1877. The Turkish garrison afterward silenced the Russian bombardment. The Russians cannonaded the Turkish outworks at Kars, May 20, 1877, but were repulsed by the Turkish garrison, which made a sortie. The Russians drove the Turks from their positions at Karadrhouran, near Kars, May 22, 1877. The Russians were again repulsed in two assaults on Kars on May 23, 1877. Four thousand Circassians under Mussa Pasha were surprised and cut to pieces by the Russians while marching toward Kars, May 31, 1877.

The Russians furiously cannonaded Batoum on May 23, 1877, but the Turkish batteries replied vigorously. The Russians attempted to throw a bridge over the river Tchuruk, at Batoum, May 25, 1877, but were fired upon and driven back by the Turks. The Russians occupied several of the heights near Batoum with slight loss, May 28, 1877.

**Russian
Repulses
at
Batoum.**

**Bombard-
ments of
Russian
Ports.**

**Attacks
on Kars
and
Batoum.**

**Capture
of
Bayazid.**

**Advance
on Erze-
roum.**

**Capture
of
Ardahan.**

**Siege of
Kars.**

**Attacks
on
Batoum.**

**Circassian
Revolt
against
Russia.**

In the meantime the Circassian tribes in the Caucasus revolted against the Russians, but were defeated near Sukum-Kaleh and at other points. The Turkish fleet and the Circassians failed in an attack on Sukum-Kaleh; and one thousand Circassians were surprised and cut to pieces by the Russians, June 5, 1877.

**Siege of
Kars.**

The siege of Kars progressed vigorously throughout the month of June, 1877; and the Turks attempted to form counter approaches and were constantly making sorties, but were frustrated in all their attempts by the Russian batteries. There was heavy fighting before Kars for four days, June 8-11, 1877; but the Russians were repulsed with heavy loss in all their attacks upon Forts Tahmaz and Kara-Dagh. The Russian force which had advanced against Erzeroum fell back in order to aid in the siege of Kars. The artillery engagements between the besiegers and the garrison of Kars continued during the middle and latter part of June.

**Battles of
Zeidikan,
Delibaba
and
Zewin.**

Twelve thousand Russians under General Tergukasoff defeated ten thousand Turks under Mehemet Pasha at Zeidikan, after a two days' battle, June 15 and 16, 1877; the Turkish lines being raked by the Russian artillery fire and their losses being heavy, Mehemet Pasha himself being killed. The Russians then fortified Delibaba Pass, but were driven from that strong position by fourteen thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha after two days' fighting, June 21 and 22, 1877; the Turks winning their victory through their effective artillery fire, and their loss being over two thousand men, while the Russian loss was almost three thousand men. The Russians were repulsed in repeated assaults upon Mukhtar Pasha's position at Zewin with a loss of one thousand killed, June 29, 1877.

**Russian
Defeats at
Batoum
and Van.**

The Russians were repulsed in their attacks on Batoum on June 21, 1877, with a loss of fifteen hundred killed and wounded. A Turkish column drove the Russians behind their old intrenchments near Batoum, June 29, 1877. A Turkish detachment defeated a thousand Russians near Van. The Russian garrison in Bayazid citadel was relieved by General Tergukasoff, who completely defeated the Turkish force of thirteen thousand men which had invested the citadel; but the town of Bayazid was destroyed.

**Russian
Victory at
Bayazid.**

**Siege of
Kars
Raised.**

The Turks made a grand sortie from Kars, June 30, 1877, and reopened communication with Mukhtar Pasha's army; while the Russian bombardment of Kars materially slackened. The Russian disasters in Armenia caused a retreat of the whole Russian line toward the frontier, thus raising the siege of Kars. The Russian left wing was almost annihilated; the Russian center was in full retreat, and the Russian right at Batoum was completely defeated. The Russians retreated with such precipitancy that they buried or concealed their artillery and

destroyed immense quantities of provisions and baggage, while the roads were strewn with Russian dead. The Russians maintained their position in a battle at Ipek, July 4, 1877; but the garrison of Kars was reinforced, and a Russian detachment was routed in several engagements near the frontier. Thus the first campaign in Asiatic Turkey in the great Russo-Turkish War of 1877 ended in favor of the Ottoman arms.

Russian
Retreat
in
Armenia.

A Turkish force landed at Tchamtehira, near Sukum-Kaleh, on the Circassian coast, but was defeated by fifteen thousand Russians, June 27, 1877. Both sides were subsequently reinforced; and the Turks routed the Russians with a loss of six thousand killed and wounded, while the Ottoman loss was comparatively small. Early in July, 1877, two Turkish frigates bombarded the Russian town of Chefketil, on the eastern coast of the Black Sea, and landed a force which defeated the garrison and drove it from the town; after which the frigates reëmbarked the Turkish troops. Several days afterward a Turkish frigate bombarded the Russian town of Simferopol, in the Crimea. On July 30, 1877, the Turkish frigate *Maumaudich* bombarded the Russian batteries at Tchamtehira, near Sukum-Kaleh, silencing every Russian gun. The *Maumaudich* was considerably damaged, and several of her crew were killed and wounded. The six thousand Turks who had been in a critical position at Tchamtehira were then embarked in the fleet of Hobart Pasha, an Englishman in the Turkish service.

Russians
Routed at
Sukum-
Kaleh.

Bombard-
ments of
Russian
Ports.

The Montenegrins were still resisting the Turks under Suleiman Pasha and Mehemet Ali Pasha, and numerous bloody engagements were fought with various success. When the Turks inclosed Montenegro with three armies, seventy thousand strong in the aggregate, the Montenegrin position became extremely critical, and the Montenegrins were at the mercy of the Porte; but the Turkish army under Suleiman Pasha left the Montenegrin territory and marched toward the Danube to aid Abdul Kerim Pasha and Osman Pasha in resisting the Russian advance in European Turkey. The Turks defeated the Bosnian insurgents in several conflicts. On August 4, 1877, eight thousand Turks defeated four thousand Herzegovinian insurgents under General Despotovich with great loss. General Despotovich and three hundred of his followers crossed the Austrian frontier, where they were disarmed and interned.

Monte-
negrins
Over-
powered.

While the war was progressing with vigor in Armenia, the campaign on the Danube had not yet fairly opened. The Roumanians had joined the Russians and had slight skirmishes with the Turks. There was also some skirmishing between small bodies of Cossacks and Bashi-Bazouks. The Turks bombarded Brahilov and Kalafat, while the Russians bombarded Rustchuk and Nicopolis. Slight collisions occurred

Opera-
tions
on the
Danube.

at Oltenitza, Turtukai, Reni, Ghiacet and other points along the Danube; and several Turkish monitors were sunk by torpedoes.

Roumania's Independence.

From the beginning of the struggle the Sultan's tributary Principality of Roumania had sided with Russia; and on May 15, 1877, the Roumanian Senate and Chamber of Deputies proclaimed Roumania completely independent of Turkey and declared war against the Porte.

Russian Forces on the Danube.

By the close of May, 1877, the Russians occupied the north side of the Danube from Kalafat on the west to Galatz on the east; but their heaviest force was at Giurgevo, opposite Rustchuk. The Turkish forces south of the Danube numbered two hundred thousand men and were under the command of Abdul Kerim Pasha. Their main force was at Shumla, near the Balkan mountains; but they occupied the south side of the Danube from Widin, opposite Kalafat, on the west, to Ghiacet, opposite Galatz, on the east; and strong Turkish garrisons were placed in the four great fortresses on the south side of the Danube—Widin, Nicopolis, Rustchuk and Silistria; while the other two strong fortresses in Bulgaria—Shumla, near the Balkan mountains, and Varna, on the Black Sea coast—were also strongly garrisoned with Turkish troops.

Turkish Fortresses on the Danube.

Condition of the Ottoman Empire.

The condition of the Ottoman Empire was extremely critical at this period. The treasury was exhausted; public credit was destroyed; the armies were wretchedly organized and disciplined; the various Christian provinces were on the verge of rebellion; Roumania and Montenegro were at open war with the Porte; the Russian armies were in Roumania and Armenia; Servia and Greece were ready to join Russia in the war; the Porte was without a single ally; the Moslem population of the Turkish capital was turbulent, and the Turkish Ministry was at variance with the Turkish Parliament. The turbulent Softas threatened an outbreak at Constantinople, but the government expelled them from the capital and declared the city in a state of siege. The Sheikh-ul-Islam proclaimed a "Holy War" against Russia. The Sultan prorogued the Turkish Parliament on June 28, 1877, to be reassembled October 1, 1877.

Commotion in Constantinople.

Attitude of Great Britain.

The other Great European Powers declared their neutrality. On May 7, 1877, Lord Derby's note in reply to Prince Gortschakoff's circular was published, accusing Russia of bad faith in regard to treaties. On the same day an animated debate began in the British House of Commons on Mr. Gladstone's resolutions denying Turkey's right to moral or material support. Fiery speeches were made on both sides, but on May 14th these resolutions were rejected by a vote of three hundred and fifty-four against two hundred and twenty-three. Several large public demonstrations were held in London on the night of May 7th in support of Mr. Gladstone's resolutions.

Lord Beaconsfield's Cabinet was divided on the policy to be pursued by Great Britain on the Eastern question; but the Ministry was resolved to defend British interests—to protect the Suez Canal, to guard Egypt and to maintain the freedom of the Bosphorus. A great popular anti-Turkish demonstration was held at Birmingham on May 31st; and the meeting was addressed by Mr. Gladstone, who denounced the Ottoman Porte for its oppression of its Christian subjects. Business was suspended and thirty thousand persons were present. At the close of the meeting a resolution was passed in favor of a policy to compel Turkey to govern her Christian subjects properly.

**Senti-
ment in
Great
Britain
Divided.**

On June 7, 1877, Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, in a note to Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, promised that Russia would not menace British interests in the East and would not therefore seize Egypt, the Suez Canal, Constantinople, the Bosphorus or the Persian Gulf.

**Gortscha-
koff's
Reply.**

Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador at London, took with him to St. Petersburg a specification of British interests as contained in Mr. Cross's speech in the British House of Commons. Count Schouvaloff's instructions, on his return to London, empowered him to declare that Russia had no designs against the Suez Canal or Egypt. Russia promised Great Britain not to exercise belligerent rights in the Suez Canal, but Turkey refused to give a similar promise and returned a haughty answer to Great Britain's demand not to make the canal a scene of hostilities. Count Schouvaloff's assurances were considered perfectly satisfactory by the British Cabinet, but a British fleet was dispatched to Besika Bay to be ready for eventualities.

**Count
Schouva-
loff's
Assur-
ances.**

After an inactivity of nearly two months, the Russians opened an active campaign on the Danube. Rustchuk, on the south side of the river, was bombarded by the Russians; while Giurgevo, on the opposite side of the river, was bombarded by the Ottoman troops at Rustchuk. About the middle of June, 1877, the Russians massed their forces at several points on the Danube with the view of crossing the river; the principal movements being at Galatz, Hirsova, Sistova and Nicopolis. There were then over four hundred thousand Russian troops in Roumania. During the latter part of June there was heavy cannonading between Rustchuk and Giurgevo and also between Widin and Kalafat. The Turks flooded the Kuntendje and Tchernavoda railroad as a measure of defense.

**Campaign
on the
Danube.**

**Immense
Russian
Armies
in Rou-
mania.**

On June 22, 1877, a Russian detachment of six thousand men under General Zimmermann crossed the Danube from Galatz into the swampy region of the Dobrudja; and on the same day this force gained possession of the heights around Matchin, after an obstinate engagement with a force of Bashi-Bazouks. The next day the Russians entered

**Russian
Invasion
of
Bulgaria.**

Capture of Matchin. Matchin, which had been evacuated by the Ottoman troops. Twenty-eight thousand Russians crossed the Danube at Brahilov; while the Turks destroyed the railway between Tchernavoda and Matchin, and a few days later they evacuated the Dobrudja.

Further Russian Invasion of Bulgaria. Simultaneously with the Russian crossing at Galatz there was a general movement along the whole Russian line, and the various towns on the south side of the Danube were bombarded by the Russians. On June 25th eighteen thousand Russians crossed the Danube at Hirsova and joined the detachment at Matchin. On June 26th the Russians were repulsed in an attack upon the Ottoman troops at Turtukai, on the Danube, above Silistria. On June 27th the Grand Duke Nicholas of Russia crossed the Danube near Sistova with the eighth Russian army corps, drove the Turks from Sistova and occupied the town, after dreadful fighting. During the bombardment Nicopolis was partly burned. On June 28th the Czar Alexander II. issued a proclamation to the Bulgarians promising protection to Christians and Mussulmans alike. On June 29th a Russian division crossed the Danube at Flammunda, after desperate fighting, at which the Czar of Russia was present. The Russians also crossed the Danube at Turnu-Maguerelli and joined the force of the Grand Duke Nicholas at Sistova.

Russian Bombardment of Rustchuk. During the latter part of June, 1877, the bombardment of Rustchuk by the Russians at Giurgevo, opposite the river, was terrible, laying most of the town in ruins. During the bombardment Russian shells struck the British, French, German and Austro-Hungarian consulates. Hundreds of non-combatants were killed in the streets, and many of the inhabitants of the city fled in terror to the neighboring villages. At the same time the Turkish garrison at Rustchuk bombarded Giurgevo and destroyed much of that town.

Battles at Biela, Plevna and Monastir. After crossing the Danube the Russians advanced in several detachments southward through Bulgaria toward the Balkan mountains. The Russians were routed at Biela with considerable loss, July 5, 1877. After two days' fighting, the Russians were beaten at Plevna by Osman Pasha and at Monastir by Ahmed Eyoub Pasha, July 14, 1877. **Capture of Nicopolis.** The advanced guard of the Russian army under General Gourko crossed the Balkans on the evening of July 13th and routed the Turks two days later. Nicopolis with its Turkish garrison of six thousand men surrendered to the Russians, July 16, 1877.

Turkish Armies in Bulgaria. General Gourko's bold dash across the Balkans created alarm and consternation at Constantinople, and the Porte made vigorous preparations to check the Russian advance. Abdul Kerim Pasha was superseded in the chief command of the Turkish armies by Mehemet Ali Pasha, a Prussian by the name of Schultz. There were four Turkish armies in European Turkey ready to oppose the Russian invaders—

Osman Pasha's army at Widin and Mehmet Ali Pasha's force at Shumla, both north of the Balkans; and the armies under Suleiman Pasha and Raouf Pasha, south of the Balkans.

The Cossacks burned four villages near Philippopolis about the middle of July. The Russians occupied Jeni-Saghra after a brilliant victory. General Gourko occupied Kazanlik on July 17th, after an obstinate engagement. The Shipka Pass was captured by the Russians, July 18th. After a desperate engagement of ten hours at Plevna, July 19, 1877, the Russians under General Schiller were utterly defeated and driven from their positions by the Ottoman force under Osman Pasha, losing two thousand men and fleeing from the field, leaving their dead and wounded behind them. In view of this defeat, the Russians removed their headquarters from Tirnova to Biela.

On July 24th there was sharp fighting at Silistria, which the Russians had completely invested. During the whole of July the Russians closely invested and vigorously besieged Rustchuk, which was fiercely bombarded, people being killed daily in the streets; but the Turkish garrison held out heroically. On July 26th the Russian merchant ship *Vesta* defeated a Turkish monitor in the Black Sea, off Kustendje, in Bulgaria.

In the meantime heavy fighting occurred south of the Balkans. Raouf Pasha occupied Eski-Saghra, after a two days' battle, July 27, 1877. Suleiman Pasha was defeated and routed at Karabunar, July 26th; but he defeated and routed the Russians with considerable loss at Jeni-Saghra, August 4th.

On July 30, 1877, forty thousand Russians under Prince Schaackoskoy and General Krudener attacked Osman Pasha's army of fifty thousand men in its strong position at Plevna and captured the Turkish positions; but the effective fire of the Turkish artillery carried destruction through the Russian ranks; and at the close of the day the Ottoman troops recaptured all their lost positions, and the Russians were disastrously defeated. The battle was renewed the next day, July 31, 1877, and the Russians were again defeated and routed. They fled from the field, leaving five thousand dead and wounded behind them. The Bashi-Bazouks took possession of the field and massacred the Russian wounded. This disastrous defeat thwarted the Russian plans and put the Russian forces south of the Balkans in a critical position.

Five thousand Ottoman cavalry were repulsed in an attack upon the Russians at Lascon, near Plevna, August 6, 1877. On August 7th the Turks repulsed the Russians at Lovatz, after two days' fighting, the Russians losing nine hundred killed and wounded. On the same day the Turks repulsed two attacks of the Russians at Jaslar, south of Rasgrad, after sanguinary fighting. On August 9th the Turks

Capture of Jeni-Saghra, Kazanlik and Shipka Pass.

First Russian Defeat at Plevna.

Sieges of Silistria and Rustchuk.

Russian Naval Victory.

Battles at Eski-Saghra, Karabunar and Jeni-Saghra.

Second Russian Defeat at Plevna.

Battles at Lascon, Lovatz, Jaslar and Yaillak.

Bulgarian Defeats. repulsed an attack of a Russian infantry and cavalry force at Yaillak. On August 11th the Turks under Rassam Pasha retook Kartova from the Bulgarians, and the next day they captured Kalofer, the Bulgarians fleeing into the Balkans after losing five hundred killed.

Atrocities on Both Sides. In the meantime there had been mutual charges of cruelty on both sides. The Turks were charged with the most brutal massacres of men, women and children among the Christian population of Bulgaria; and these charges were sustained by European newspaper correspondents. On the other hand, the Turks accused the Russians and Bulgarians of massacring women and children among the Mohammedan Turks, and the accusations were also sustained by foreign newspaper correspondents. The excuses of the Bulgarians for these brutal massacres of innocent Turkish women and children were the Turkish outrages in Bulgaria during the spring and summer of 1876. The Greeks in the island of Candia, or Crete, maddened by Turkish tyranny and cruelty, rose in revolt, compelling the Turks to seek refuge in the fortresses of the island.

Cretan Revolt against Turkey.

Great Britain's Activity.

Great Britain took vigorous precautionary measures in view of the Russian advance toward Constantinople. The British fleet at Besika Bay was reinforced, and British troops were sent to reinforce the garrisons of Gibraltar and Malta. The greatest activity prevailed in the dockyards of Great Britain, and orders were received at the Woolwich arsenal to have field artillery of the reserve class and some larger ordnance equipped for service. At the prorogation of the British Parliament on August 4, 1877, the queen's speech, in alluding to the Eastern question, contained these significant words: "If, in the course of the contest, the rights of my empire should be assailed or endangered, I should confidently rely on your help to vindicate and maintain them." Russia was intensely exasperated at Great Britain's course, and the Russian press manifested a hostile tone toward Great Britain.

Attitude of Austria-Hungary.

Public feeling was intensely excited in Austria-Hungary; the Hungarians, who sympathized with the Turks, being greatly alarmed at the Russian invasion of Bulgaria; and the Austro-Hungarian Cabinets under Count Andrassy contemplated the mobilization of the Austro-Hungarian army.

Bombardments of Rustchuk, Giurgevo and Kustendje.

In the meantime the Russians had pressed the siege of Rustchuk with vigor and fiercely bombarded the town; while the Turks furiously bombarded Giurgevo, opposite the river. About the middle of August the Turks bombarded Kustendje and compelled the Russians to evacuate the town, but the Russians reoccupied Kustendje several days afterward. On August 13th the Turks defeated and routed the Russians at Tokoi, capturing five cannon. On August 17th a Russian reconnoitering party was repulsed near the river Lom. On August 20th

Russian Repulses.

detachments of Russian cavalry were repulsed by Ottoman troops at Nereinsk, near Plevna.

Toward the close of July, 1877, operations were resumed in Armenia, the Russians having been heavily reinforced. Fighting was renewed near Kars, and on August 4th a Turkish cavalry force of one thousand men was defeated by a Russian detachment near Ardahan. On August 5th the Turks assumed the offensive, and the Russian outposts were driven in by Kurds and Bashi-Bazouks; but the Ottoman troops were repulsed in an attack on the Russians at Khalfalut. On August 8th the Russians were repulsed in two attacks on the Turks at Kaduklar. On August 11th several hundred Russians were killed in an ambushade near Koule. On August 12th the Russian outposts near Ani were defeated with a loss of one hundred killed. On August 13th there was an artillery duel at Batoum.

**Russian
Defeats in
Armenia.**

During the last fortnight of August, 1877, the Russians suffered a series of calamitous defeats in Armenia. On August 18th forty thousand Russians attacked Mukhtar Pasha's army at Yanilar, but were repulsed and routed with the loss of fifteen hundred killed. On the night of August 24th Mukhtar's Pasha's army carried the heights of Kizil-Tepe by storm and repulsed three attempts of the Russians to retake them. The battle continued the whole of the next day, August 25, 1877, and ended in the rout of the Russians with the loss of four thousand killed and wounded; but the Ottoman army was disastrously repulsed in an attempt to retake Kuruk-Dara, losing three thousand men, while the Russians lost less than a thousand. On August 24th the Turks captured a redoubt near Batoum. At the beginning of September, 1877, General Loris Melikoff was superseded in the command of the Russian army in Armenia by the Grand Duke Michael.

**Battles of
Yanilar,
Kizil-
Tepe and
Kuruk-
Dara.**

In the meantime terrible fighting occurred in European Turkey. After its disastrous defeat at Eski-Saghra at the close of July, 1877, General Gourko's army was obliged to retreat northward toward the Balkans, closely pursued by Suleiman Pasha's victorious army, thirty thousand strong. For eight days, August 21-28, 1877, Suleiman Pasha vainly attempted to force the Shipka Pass, which was gallantly held by the Russians under General Radetzky; all the Turkish assaults being repulsed with heavy loss to the assailants, after the most desperate fighting; though the Russians evacuated the town of Shipka and the Turks occupied it on the 24th, August, 1877. The Russians remained in possession of the Shipka Pass; and, after a lull of three days, cannonading was renewed on September 1 and 2, 1877.

**General
Gourko's
Retreat in
Bulgaria.**

**Russian
Defeats at
Shipka
Pass.**

The Turks were repulsed in attacks on the Russians at Tirnova, August 22 and 23, 1877. Osman Pasha's troops were repulsed at Selvi, August 22d. On the same day Mehemet Ali Pasha's army de-

**Turkish
Defeats at
Tirnova,
and Selvi.**

**Battle of
Eski-
Djuma.**

feated the Russians near Eski-Djuma, taking several cannon and inflicting great loss upon their foes; but the Russians retook Jaslar, which the Turks had captured; and the next day the Russians repulsed three attacks of the Turks, but fled upon the arrival of Turkish reinforcements and left the Turks in possession of the place.

**Battle of
Karahas-
sankoi.**

On August 30, 1877, twenty thousand Turks from Mehemet Ali Pasha's army attacked the Russians near Karahassankoi; and after desperate fighting, during which the village was taken and retaken, the Russians were defeated, and they fled in disorder, with the loss of four thousand killed and wounded, a cannon and two thousand stand of small arms.

**Battle of
Pelistat.**

On September 1, 1877, a part of Osman Pasha's army made a reconnaissance against the Russian fortified positions at Pelistat, five miles east from Plevna; and, after a desperate engagement, in which all the Turkish attacks were repulsed, the Russians, who numbered twenty thousand, defeated and routed the Turks, who fled with the loss of two thousand killed and wounded.

**Battle of
Lovatz.**

On September 3, 1877, the Turks at Lovatz attacked twenty thousand Russians before that town under Prince Imeritinsky and General Skobelev; but, after desperate fighting, the Russians drove the Turks into the town, which they entered with them; and the struggle continued in the streets of Lovatz until the Ottoman troops were finally driven out of the town in great disorder, pursued by the Russian cavalry, thus leaving Lovatz in the undisputed possession of the Russians after twelve hours' fighting.

**Battles of
Kadikoi
and
Kazelova.**

On September 4, 1877, the Turks under Ahmed Eyoub Pasha occupied Kadikoi, near Rustchuk, but were driven out the same day with great loss by a force of Russian infantry and Cossacks. The next day Ahmed Eyoub Pasha attacked the Russians at Kazelova, near Rustchuk, and drove them from their fortified positions after a desperate battle of five hours, compelling them to recross the Lom with the loss of three thousand men, while the Ottoman loss was only one thousand. On the same day fighting occurred before Rustchuk, after which the Russians fiercely bombarded the city from Slobosia, the Turkish batteries replying briskly.

**Bombard-
ment of
Rustchuk.**

After a heavy artillery duel of two days at Plevna, the Russians gained possession of the heights south of that town, on the evening of September 8, 1877. The cannonade continued that night and the next few days; and on the 11th the Russians captured the Grivitza redoubt and other positions, after a desperate struggle; but the next day, September 12, 1877, after the Russians under General Skobelev had repulsed six Turkish assaults, the tide of battle was again turning in favor of the Turks, who recaptured all their lost positions except

**Third
Russian
Defeat at
Plevna.**

Grivitza. The Russians continued their bombardment of the Turkish fortifications. During this six days' fighting at Plevna the Russians lost seven thousand men killed and wounded.

On September 20, 1877, the Russians under Count Stackelberg dispersed three squadrons of Turkish cavalry near Raschita, but withdrew on the approach of Turkish infantry. The next day the Russians under Colonel Totalinin routed ten battalions of Ottoman cavalry with artillery, also two regiments of Ottoman cavalry near Temin, by opening an artillery fire upon them, but afterward retired to a post of observation.

**Turkish
Defeats.**

Mehemet Ali Pasha's army was repulsed in all its assaults upon the Czarewitch's army at Biela, September 21, 1877, the loss being heavy on both sides; and Mehemet Ali Pasha afterward retreated to his former positions on the Lom. The next day, September 22, 1877, Hifsi Pasha defeated fifteen Russian battalions near Dubnik; and he entered Plevna a few days afterward with fresh supplies of provisions and ammunition.

**Battles at
Biela and
Dubnik.**

About this time the Montenegrins gained a series of successes over the Turks, capturing a number of strongholds, and becoming masters of the Duga Pass on September 20th. Early in October a force of Bashi-Bazouks and two thousand Turkish cavalry arrived at Mostar, where ten thousand Ottoman troops were concentrating to recover the territory captured by the Montenegrins. On November 9th Prince Nicholas called all Montenegrins to arms. The Montenegrins conducted the campaign vigorously in November.

**Monte-
negrin
Suc-
cesses.**

By the beginning of October, 1877, the incessant and destructive Russian bombardment of Rustchuk had laid that town in ruins. Early in October, Raouf Pasha superseded Suleiman Pasha in command of the Turkish army of the Balkans, and Suleiman Pasha succeeded Mehmet Ali Pasha in command of the Turkish army of the Lom.

**Destruc-
tion of
Rust-
chuk.**

**Turkish
Changes.**

On October 7th a Turkish force defeated a Russian detachment near Orchanic. On October 11th fifteen hundred Hungarians invaded Roumania to aid the Turks, but recrossed the frontier the next day. For three days, October 12-14, 1877, the Russians bombarded Sulina, at the mouth of the Danube, and destroyed a part of that town, but were eventually driven off.

**Hunga-
rian
Raid.**

**Bombard-
ment of
Sulina.**

During the latter part of September and throughout October and November, 1877, the Russians, under the direction of General Todleben, the hero of Sevastopol, closely besieged Osman Pasha's army at Plevna. The Russian bombardment was violent and effective. The Roumanians captured the second Grivitza redoubt on October 19th, after being twice repulsed; but the Turks recaptured the redoubt during the night, after a sanguinary struggle. The Turks then constructed a

**Siege and
Bombard-
ment of
Plevna.**

new interior line of formidable defenses. Osman Pasha ordered all irregular Circassians, Bulgarians and non-combatant Mohammedans to leave Plevna.

**Russian
Capture
of
Dubnik.**

After a desperate engagement on October 24th, the Russian Imperial Guards and a detachment under General Gourko captured the Turkish positions at Dubnik, near Plevna, with three thousand Ottoman infantry and a regiment of cavalry, four cannon and a quantity of ammunition; the Turks losing four thousand killed and wounded and seven thousand prisoners, among whom were two pashas; while the Russian loss was three thousand killed and wounded. Chefket Pasha fled with twelve battalions.

**Invest-
ment and
Siege of
Plevna.**

Near the close of October the Russians established a strong force west of Plevna; and a portion of the Russian Imperial Guards crossed the Vid between Nicopolis and Plevna, passing around Osman Pasha's left. General Gourko's cavalry crossed the Upper Vid west of Lovatz, swept the Orchanie road, got in communication with the force coming from the north and made a successful attack on the Turks under Hifsi Pasha, while a heavy cannonade was simultaneously opened along the entire line on the east of Plevna. In the meantime the Turks had conveyed large quantities of provisions into Plevna. The Russian Imperial Guards took up positions on the Russian left, thus gradually extending the line of investment across the Lovatz road to the Sophia road. The Russians were continually receiving reinforcements.

**Russian
Successes
around
Plevna.**

On October 28th a Russian detachment carried the Turkish position at Teliche, west of Plevna, capturing a pasha, several officers and several companies of Turkish troops and three cannon. On October 31st the Turks under Chefket Pasha were repulsed in an effort to retake Teliche, after a conflict at Radomirze, and fled in great disorder. On the same day Gorny Dubnik was evacuated by the Turks and occupied by the Russians. On November 1st the Russians under General Kanzeff captured Dae-Tetewen, north-east of Orchanie, where there were seven large and thirty small positions. The Russians seized a large quantity of provisions, tools for intrenchments, cartridges and a herd of cattle. The Russians were also intrenching in new positions toward Orchanie; and Chefket Pasha retreated, fighting, toward Orchanie. By the early part of November the Russians had completely invested Plevna, and the siege was closely pressed.

**Move-
ments
on the
Lom.**

Toward the close of October, 1877, the Turkish Army of the Lom under Suleiman Pasha retreated to Rasgrad, left a detachment at Kadikoi and intrenched itself so as to cover Rustchuk and to withstand any attack by the Russian army under the Czarewitch. The Czarewitch pushed forward toward Rasgrad, leaving one corps to operate against Rustchuk. On October 26th twelve Russian battalions, with

cavalry and artillery, attacked the defenses of Rustchuk. The Turks made a sortie and forced the Russians to retire behind their intrenchments. Four Russian divisions were repulsed in an attack on the Turkish line on the Lom, with a loss of eight hundred killed and some prisoners.

**Sortie
from
Rust-
chuk.**

Near the end of October, 1877, the Turks recommenced a vigorous bombardment of the Russian positions in the Shipka Pass and silenced one Russian battery. The bombardment was maintained for several weeks.

**Bombard-
ment of
Shipka
Pass.**

On November 4th the Russians under General Skobelev pushed on to Brestovec, south of Plevna, threw up batteries there, and, after a violent cannonade, attacked the Turkish position, but were unsuccessful. On November 9th a Russian detachment captured Vratza, between Plevna and Sophia, with several thousand wagons and a large quantity of stores. On November 11th and 12th the Turks attempted to surprise General Skobelev's positions, but were repulsed. Osman Pasha lost from two hundred to three hundred men daily from the constant salvos of the Russian artillery. Osman Pasha was engaged diligently in constructing new fortifications. On November 16th the Russians were repulsed in attacks on the Turkish positions near Orhanie. On November 17th a detachment of Russian infantry and Cossacks drove the Turks out of Rosalie Pass by turning their fortified positions on Moragai-Dagh. The Turkish camp there was captured. On the nights of November 16th and 17th General Skobelev was wounded by fragments of shells. The Russians maintained an incessant bombardment on the Turkish positions at Plevna.

**Siege of
Plevna.**

In the meantime the war had been progressing with vigor in Armenia and in the Caucasus region. In September, 1877, an insurrection broke out in the Russian province of Daghestan, on the west side of the Caspian Sea. The insurgents were defeated by Russian troops on September 23d and 24th. On September 30th and October 3d the Russians inflicted crushing defeats upon the insurgents, but the revolt continued for several months.

**Revolt in
Daghes-
tan
against
Russia.**

On October 2, 1877, the Russians, under General Loris Melikoff, acting under the orders of the Grand Duke Michael, attacked and captured Mukhtar Pasha's position at Great Yanilar, on the Armenian frontier, twelve miles east of Kars; but the Russians were repulsed in their assaults on Kizil-Tepe and Little Yanilar. The Turks captured Kuruk-Dara and carried Glade-Dagh by storm, routing the Russians with a loss of three thousand killed and wounded, the Turkish loss being about the same. The Turks repulsed all the Russian assaults the next day and remained in possession of the battlefield. The Russians evacuated Great Yanilar during that night, October 3, 1877, and the

**Mukhtar
Pasha's
Victory
and
Defeat in
Armenia.**

Turks reoccupied it on the 4th; but all of Mukhtar Pasha's assaults were repulsed by the deadly artillery fire of the Russians, each side losing about twenty-five hundred killed and wounded.

**First
Battle of
Aladja-
Dagh.**

In consequence of the Russian advance, the Turks evacuated Kizil-Tepe, Sarbatan and their other positions during the night of October 8th; and those strongholds were then occupied by the Russians, the Turks retiring to the summit of Aladja-Dagh, where the Russians were finally repulsed and routed in a great battle the next afternoon, October 9, 1877.

**Mukhtar
Pasha's
Disas-
trous
Defeat at
Aladja-
Dagh.**

On October 14th a Russian division under General Lazaroff moved south of Aladja-Dagh, drove the Turks from Orlok upon Vezinskoi and Kars and occupied Orlok, thus completely turning Mukhtar Pasha's right wing. The next morning, October 15, 1877, the Russians opened a heavy cannonade upon Olya-Tepe, the chief of the Turkish positions. In the afternoon ten thousand Russians under General Heymann carried Olya-Tepe by assault, cutting the Turkish army in two. The Ottoman center and left wing, under Mukhtar Pasha himself, retreated to Kars, pursued by General Heymann and harrassed on the flank by General Lazaroff. Mukhtar Pasha found refuge behind the fortifications of Kars, after a terrible rout, during which he lost many killed and wounded, several thousand prisoners and four cannon. The Turkish right, eighteen thousand strong, in the meantime had been surrounded and attacked, and, after being driven from their fortified camp with heavy loss, were compelled to surrender with forty cannon. Mussa Pasha and a son of Schamyl, the famous Circassian chief, were among the killed on the Turkish side. Thus all the advantages that the Turks had gained in Armenia during the summer were lost by the second battle of Aladja-Dagh.

**Russian
March
on Erze-
roum.**

After their brilliant victory over Mukhtar Pasha's army, the Russians under General Heymann marched against Erzeroum, the Armenian capital; and another Russian force under General Lazaroff marched against the Turkish army under Ismail Pasha; while a large Russian detachment invested Kars, which now withstood another siege. The Russians were repulsed in an assault upon Fort Ahenz, at Kars, October 16, 1877. Kars was again bombarded by the Russians, and a part of the city was set on fire. The Turkish armies under Mukhtar Pasha and Ismail Pasha effected a junction near the close of October; and the united forces were hastily falling back toward Erzeroum, before the advancing Russian army under General Heymann. Erzeroum was preparing for a siege. The Russian forces under Generals Heymann and Tergukasoff effected a junction near Hassan-Kaleh, near which place Mukhtar and Ismail Pashas occupied a strong position. After occupying Koprikoi on October 28th, when the Turkish rear-

**Invest-
ment and
Siege of
Kars.**

guard retreated hastily to Hassan-Kaleh, the Russian cavalry continued the pursuit, attacked the Turkish bivouac two hours after midnight, compelled the Turks to flee and pursued them more than three miles.

Mukhtar Pasha's great defeat in the second battle of Aladja-Dagh broke the power of the Turks in Armenia. The Russian forces under Generals Heymann and Tergukassoff were concentrated at Deve-Boyun, near Erzeroum, where Mukhtar and Ismail Pashas' united armies were encamped. The Russians attacked the Ottoman positions at Deve-Boyun, November 5, 1877; and, after a severe battle of ten hours, the Turks were driven from their positions with the loss of twenty-five hundred killed, wounded and prisoners, besides their camp, artillery, arms and provisions.

**Battle of
Deve-
Boyun.**

On October 28th General Loris Melikoff summoned Manni Pasha, the Turkish commandant at Kars, to surrender the fortress within twenty-four hours. A council of Turkish officers immediately rejected the demand for surrender and resolved to defend the town to the last extremity. On November 5th the Russians under General Loris Melikoff occupied a position in front of the south-eastern forts of Kars, for the purpose of erecting siege batteries. The Turks attacked the Russians, supported by a fire from the forts, but were repulsed by the Russians, who pursued them into Fort Hafiz Pasha at the point of the bayonet, inflicted great loss upon them, spiked the cannon and took some prisoners. After prolonged fighting near Kars, on November 14th, the Russians were repulsed.

**Siege of
Kars.**

On November 9th the Russians under General Heymann attacked the Turkish redoubts south-east of Erzeroum, and a battle of eleven hours followed. The Russians took Fort Azizic, but afterward were forced to abandon it. The Russians were repulsed and driven toward Deve-Boyun, pursued by the Turks. The Russians rallied and drove back the Turks, but they were again forced to fall back to Deve-Boyun before a superior Ottoman force. Besides six hundred killed and wounded, the Russians lost a large quantity of arms and ammunition, but took over five hundred prisoners. On November 14th the Russians recaptured Fort Azizic, but were immediately driven from the fort. The inhabitants of Erzeroum participated in these conflicts. The combined Russian armies under Generals Heymann and Tergukassoff, then before Erzeroum, numbered twenty-five thousand men.

**Russian
Repulses
near Er-
zeroum.**

The Russians under General Loris Melikoff and the Grand Duke Michael carried Kars by storm on Sunday morning, November 18, 1877. On the previous evening fifteen thousand Russians climbed the steep rocks, ramparts and walls and attacked an equal number of Turks, who fought desperately. The Kanli-Tabia, the citadel, the three

**Capture
of Kars.**

towers and Forts Hafiz Pasha, Kara-Dagh and Suiwarri were all carried by assault in the morning, after a bloody struggle during the whole night. The garrisons of the Arab-Tabia and the Tchamak-Tabia resisted until morning, when they evacuated the forts and fled toward Erzeroum, but were pursued and overtaken by Russian dragoons and Cossacks and were brought back as prisoners. The city and fortress of Kars, with three hundred cannon, stores and ammunition, were then in the possessor of the Russians. The Turks lost five thousand killed and wounded, ten thousand prisoners and many flags. The Russians lost about twenty-five hundred men. Among the Russians killed were Count Grabbe, General Belinsky and Lieutenant-Colonel Melikoff. General Loris Melikoff entered the city at eleven o'clock in the morning, Sunday, November 18, 1877. He immediately marched with fifteen thousand men for Erzeroum; and Mukhtar Pasha was summoned to surrender that city, but he refused.

Plot in
Constantinople.

Early in November, 1877, a conspiracy was discovered in Constantinople to depose Sultan Abdul Hamid II. and to restore his deposed brother, ex-Sultan Amurath V., to the Turkish throne; and forty-eight conspirators were arrested, forty of whom were strangled. About the same time four hundred prominent Bulgarians, including the Messrs. Geshoff, wealthy merchants, were sentenced to exile in Asia Minor. They started in chains, under a strong escort, on November 9th.

Lord
Beaconsfield's
Speech on
the War.

At a banquet of the newly-inaugurated Lord Mayor of London, at the Guildhall, on November 9, 1877, Lord Beaconsfield, in reply to a toast, as Her Majesty's Minister, declared in strong terms that the British government adhered unswervingly to the declaration they made at the commencement of the Eastern war, that British neutrality must cease if British interests were assailed or menaced.

The
Sultan's
Speech on
Peace.

On November 16th a council over which the Sultan presided was held at Constantinople. The general feeling expressed by all present, and by none more strongly than by the Sultan himself, was in favor of peace. Though great distrust at Russia's declarations was manifested, and although a desire for the termination of the war was expressed, the necessity for a vigorous resistance was fully recognized by all the members of the council. Several weeks later Turkey made an unsuccessful effort to obtain mediation through Austria-Hungary. The greatest despondency prevailed at the Turkish capital. Great excitement prevailed at Constantinople when the reserves were called out to maintain order in the Turkish provinces and the capital.

Lord
Derby's
Speech
on the
War.

On November 28th Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, received a deputation representing several political societies headed by Lord Strathden Campbell, who presented a memorial urging active intervention in favor of Turkey. Lord Derby replied that the

British government saw no reason to depart from its neutrality. He did not think Constantinople or the Suez Canal in danger. When the British government, he said, saw a reasonable opportunity it would do what it could to bring about peace. Lord Derby's speech made a good impression in Russia.

On November 19th there was heavy fighting on the Lom, near Rustchuk, between portions of the armies of the Czarewitch and Mehemet Ali Pasha. A Turkish force, making a reconnoissance, carried the Russian positions on the Metchka Heights, at Pirgos, near Rustchuk, and near Jovanchiftlich, destroying seventy caissons filled with ammunition and provisions at Pirgos. The Russians lost fourteen hundred men.

The Roumanians captured Rahova, a small town north-west of Plevna, on the morning of November 21st, after a three days' engagement. The Turks fled toward Lom-Palanka and Widin, pursued by the Roumanians. Simultaneously with the capture of Rahova, a Roumanian division crossed the Danube opposite that town.

A Russian detachment of one regiment of infantry and one of cavalry was annihilated by the Turks at Nevesich, November 22, 1877, the entire Russian cavalry regiment except six men being destroyed, and two pieces of cannon and a number of prisoners being taken by the victorious Turks. The Roumanians took the strong position of Provitz on November 23d, after two days' fighting. The Turks evacuated Orhanie on November 25th; and on the same day the Russians captured the fortified town of Etropoli, about twenty miles north of the Balkans, the Turks fleeing in the greatest disorder. On November 26th the Turks attacked the Twelfth Russian Army Corps at Terstenik and Metchka; but, after a severe conflict, the Turks were repulsed with heavy loss. The Russians repulsed simultaneous demonstrations by the Turks against Polomarka and Kazelova.

On December 3, 1877, a Turkish detachment defeated a Russian detachment at Armedli, on the Tirnova road. Suleiman Pasha's army attacked and defeated the Russians under Prince Mirsky with the loss of three thousand killed and wounded near Elena, nineteen miles south-west of Tirnova, capturing Elena with eleven cannon, twenty ammunition wagons and three hundred prisoners. Fighting was renewed the next day without any important result. A few days later a Turkish division crossed the Lom and captured Popkoi.

On Sunday, December 9, 1877, Osman Pasha made a sortie from Plevna, in order to break through the Russian line of investment; but, after a severe engagement, Osman Pasha, who was wounded, surrendered unconditionally to the Russians. The number of prisoners taken by the Russians at the surrender of Plevna was forty thousand,

**Turkish
Successes
near
Rust-
chuk.**

**Capture
of
Rahova
by the
Rouma-
nians.**

**Russian
Disaster
at
Nevesich.**

**Turkish
Disasters.**

**Turkish
Successes
near
Tirnova.**

**Capture
of
Plevna.**

exclusive of twenty thousand sick and wounded. After the surrender of Plevna the Czar Alexander II. placed his own carriage and escort at Osman Pasha's disposal. The Russian and Roumanian armies made a grand triumphal entry into Plevna at half-past three in the afternoon of the following day, December 10, 1877.

**Turkish
Circular.**

Intelligence of the fall of Plevna caused great rejoicings in St. Petersburg and dismay in Constantinople; and the Ottoman Porte issued a circular to the European Powers, intimating its readiness to treat for peace on the basis of the proposals of the Constantinople Conference the previous winter; but all the Great Powers refused to mediate. Russia insisted upon Turkey treating with her directly and intimated that mediation would only make the terms more severe. Great discontent prevailed among the populace of the Turkish capital, and seditious placards were found frequently. The Turkish Parliament reassembled on December 13, 1877; and the Sultan, in his speech from the throne, alluded at some length to the reforms lately granted to his subjects by the new Turkish constitution.

**Foreign
Mediation
Refused.**

**New
Turko-
Servian
War.**

The fall of Plevna encouraged Serbia to declare war against Turkey on December 14, 1877; and the next day Prince Milan issued a proclamation at Belgrade, recounting the Turkish atrocities and violations of the treaty of peace between Turkey and Serbia signed in February, 1877, and calling upon the Servian army to move forward in the name of Servian independence. Prince Milan immediately started for Alexinatz, and the Servian army crossed the Turkish frontier at Pirot and marched against Kossova. The Servians destroyed the Shetchina bridge on December 21st, after a severe engagement. On December 22d the Ottoman Porte issued a proclamation deposing Prince Milan. On December 24th the Servians captured Ak-Palanka with three Krupp guns and a large quantity of ammunition and provisions, after a severe battle. Thirty thousand Servians, with one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, were investing Nissa; while the Servian forces under Generals Leschjanin and Benitzki occupied Leskovatz and Kurschumlje, capturing a quantity of cattle and provisions. The Servians cannonaded Pirot and Novi-Bazar, but were repulsed with considerable loss. They, however, captured Pirot on December 28th.

**Servian
Successes.**

**Monte-
negrin
Victory.**

On December 26th the Montenegrins defeated a Turkish detachment which occupied intrenched positions near Dulcigno, capturing many prisoners, three flags and a quantity of provisions. Near the close of December the Russian steamer *Russland*, commanded by Adjutant Baranoff, returned to Sevastopol from a cruise in the Bosphorus, bringing as a prize the Turkish transport *Messina* with seven hundred Ottoman troops on board as prisoners.

**Turkish
Transport
Captured.**

On December 31, 1877, the Russians under General Gourko defeated the Turks at Taskeseu, twenty-five miles from Sophia, capturing the Turkish intrenchments and losing seven hundred killed and wounded. At nightfall the Turks retreated toward Sophia, pursued by the Russian cavalry. After a short rest, General Gourko resumed his advance upon Sophia, and defeated the Turks at Bogrov with the loss of one thousand killed, January 2, 1878; and the next day the victorious Russians entered Sophia. A few days later the Russians under General Radetzky crossed the Balkans through the Shipka Pass, the Turks having previously evacuated their positions because of the severe cold. On January 9, 1878, the Russian forces under Generals Radetzky and Skobeleff defeated and captured the whole Turkish army of twelve thousand men in the Shipka Pass. At the same time the Russians drove the Turks from the Trojan Pass, in the Balkans, and marched against Adrianople, the second city of the Ottoman Empire.

General Gourko's Victories and Capture of Sophia.

Turkish Army Captured at Shipka Pass.

The rapid progress of the Russians spread consternation among the Mussulman population of Bulgaria and Roumelia; and one hundred and fifty thousand panic-stricken fugitives, mostly women and children, crowded into Constantinople, many of them perishing from hunger and cold, fifteen thousand being in the snow at Chorlon.

Wholesale Mussulman Exodus.

After four days of severe fighting at Philippopolis, the Russians under General Gourko defeated Suleiman Pasha's army of forty thousand men, January 18, 1878, driving it into the Rhodope mountains with the loss of four thousand killed, three thousand prisoners and ninety-seven cannon, while the Russians lost over two thousand killed and wounded.

Suleiman Pasha's Defeat at Philippopolis.

The Russians under General Radetzky entered Adrianople, January 30, 1878; and both Generals Radetzky and Gourko advanced rapidly toward Constantinople, where the greatest consternation prevailed. Great Britain and Austria-Hungary became alarmed at the rapid approach of the Russians to Constantinople, and both those Powers showed warlike signs.

Capture of Adrianople and Advance on Constantinople.

On January 7, 1878, the Turks under Hafiz Pasha occupied Kur-schumlje, thirty-five miles north-west of Nissa, after two days of sanguinary fighting with the Servians, whose loss was considerable. Another Turkish force under Eyoub Pasha defeated the Servians at Novi-Bazar, pursued them to the frontier, burned six of their military stations and destroyed their intrenchments. But, after five days of fierce fighting at Nissa, the Servians captured Goritz and Venick and all the heights commanding the town, on January 9 and 10, 1878, in consequence of which Nissa surrendered to the Servians the next day, January 11, 1878. The Servians also took Vranja, and on January

Servian Defeats and Victories.

20th they captured Pristina. They also reoccupied Kurschumlje, after an engagement in which the Turks lost over eight hundred killed, wounded and prisoners. The Servians and Roumanians invested and besieged the strong fortress of Widin, on the Danube. By January 20th the Roumanians occupied Florentin, thus completing the investment of Widin. The Roumanian bombardment set fire to Fort Belgradschik, in Widin. Forty thousand Servians defeated the Turks with heavy loss near Ratscharnik, January 28, 1878, after a battle of four days.

**Monte-
negrin
Victories.**

After a vigorous siege, Antivari surrendered unconditionally to the Montenegrins, January 10, 1878. After a violent bombardment, the Montenegrins captured three fortified islands in Lake Scutari, January 26, 1878. About the middle of January, 1878, a Turkish fleet bombarded and destroyed the Russian ports of Eupatoria and Yatta, in the Crimea.

**Greece's
Warlike
Attitude
toward
Turkey.**

In the meantime Greece assumed a warlike attitude toward Turkey. The peace Ministry at Athens was succeeded by a war Cabinet about the middle of January, 1878, which called the National Guard of Greece to arms; and much anxiety prevailed in the Greek army and navy. Six hundred Greeks immediately entered Turkish territory; and a Greek insurrection at once broke out in Thessaly, Epirus and Macedonia. The cessation of hostilities between Russia and Turkey caused great excitement and consternation in Athens, where a furious mob attacked the houses of the Cabinet Ministers on January 26th, broke the windows and killed and wounded several persons; but the mob was finally dispersed by the troops. Warlike demonstrations were renewed the next day, crowds of people parading the streets and shouting outside the residences of the Ministers. A turbulent mob of two thousand persons from the Piræus was dispersed by the troops, after several rioters had been wounded.

**Greece's
Invasion
Action.**

On February 1, 1878, the Greek Premier declared, in the Chamber of Deputies in Athens, that he intended to send troops into Thessaly and Epirus; and the entire Greek population was ordered to enroll in the National Guard. Great enthusiasm prevailed in Greece. The Greek government ordered twelve thousand men to cross the frontier into the Greek provinces of Turkey—Epirus, Thessaly and Macedonia; and the Greek Chamber of Deputies voted a war supply of ten million drachmas, to be raised by a loan. Twelve thousand Greek troops crossed the frontier on February 2, 1878. An insurrection broke out against the Turks in the island of Candia, or Crete; and the Greek insurgents declared the island annexed to Greece. The Ottoman Porte sent Hobart Pasha's fleet to the Piræus. On February 3, 1878, the Greeks in Thessaly captured Domokos from the Turks at the

**Greek
Invasion
of
Turkish
Territory.**

point of the bayonet, losing one hundred and fifty killed. A few days later an armistice was concluded between the Greeks and the Turks, but the Greek insurgents in Thessaly and Crete continued in arms and fought fierce conflicts with the Ottoman troops.

In the meantime Turkey had become extremely anxious for peace, and early in January, 1878, she asked for an armistice through Great Britain. Great Britain sounded Russia as to the terms on which she would grant peace to the Porte, and Russia replied that Turkey would have to treat directly with Russia for peace. Mr. Layard, the British ambassador at Constantinople, handed to the Porte the Russian reply to Great Britain's note. Lord Derby, the British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, informed Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, that Great Britain must be allowed to participate in any peace conditions which might follow an armistice. Russia claimed the right to negotiate with Turkey alone, but recognized the right of the European Powers to show their appreciation of the peace conditions between the belligerents. The Russian government maintained the strictest secrecy as to the terms that it would exact from the Porte. The British Cabinet held numerous councils and maintained constant telegraphic communication with St. Petersburg. The Porte now informed Great Britain of its readiness to treat directly with Russia.

On January 9, 1878, the Turkish commander-in-chief notified the Russian headquarters at Lovatz that he was empowered to arrange the basis of an armistice. The Grand Duke Nicholas, the Russian commander-in-chief, after referring the matter to St. Petersburg, replied that negotiations could be concluded only with himself directly and that there could be no question of an armistice without bases for peace. On January 13th the Grand Duke Nicholas also telegraphed to Constantinople that he was ready to receive an Ottoman delegate to discuss armistice conditions, whereupon the Porte appointed Server and Namyk Pashas to go to Kazanlik to negotiate with the Grand Duke Nicholas.

In the meantime Great Britain continued distrustful of Russia; and telegraphic orders were sent from London to Malta, instructing Vice-Admiral Hornby to move with his fleet to Turkish waters for the protection of British interests. While the British Cabinet was thus hostile to Russia, the Liberal party in England showed its opposition to a war policy; and John Bright made a great speech at Birmingham in favor of non-intervention, while speeches against Great Britain's going to war with Russia were made by Mr. Gladstone at Oxford, Mr. Mundella at Sheffield and Sir William Vernon Harcourt at Bradford.

Russia declared her readiness to discuss with the British Cabinet the special points which might affect British interests. This declaration

**Move-
ments
toward
Peace.**

**Steps
toward
an Arm-
istice.**

**British
Fleet
Ordered
to Move.**

**Liberal
Opposi-
tion in
England.**

Great
Britain,
Austria-
Hungary
and
Russia.

caused frequent Cabinet councils in London. Both Great Britain and Austria-Hungary declared their determination to be consulted on the peace conditions. Russia, in defining her course, expressed her good will toward Great Britain and Austria-Hungary, disclaimed any intention of interfering with the Suez Canal or the route to India and denied that she contemplated the acquisition of Constantinople. When the British Parliament assembled, January 17, 1878, the speech from the throne alluded to the Eastern question in a pacific tone, but recommended precautionary measures. Great Britain now proposed a conference of the Great European Powers to settle the European questions growing out of the Russo-Turkish War.

Great
Debates
in the
British
Parlia-
ment.

In the meantime Great Britain continued to be greatly excited. On January 29, 1878, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, informed the House of Commons that he would move for a supplementary grant for the military and naval service. This announcement precipitated a debate which lasted several days, the Liberals opposing the policy of the Ministry. Lord Beaconsfield spoke in the same strain in the House of Lords as did Sir Stafford Northcote in the House of Commons, declaring that Great Britain was not going to be dictated to by any other Power. Lord Derby, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, and Lord Caernarvon, Colonial Secretary, disapproving Lord Beaconsfield's policy, tendered their resignations. Lord Derby soon withdrew his resignation, but Lord Caernarvon retired and was succeeded by Viscount Sandon. The Liberal leaders held a meeting, at which it was decided to sustain the supplementary credit vote if it were not a war vote. In the House of Commons, on January 28, 1878, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in moving for a supplementary credit of six million pounds sterling, made a great speech, in which he declared that the supplementary credit vote would be construed by the government as a vote of confidence. He expressed great distrust of Russia and explained the circumstances under which the British fleet had been sent to Besika Bay, declaring that European concert was necessary. Sir Stafford Northcote's speech precipitated another debate, which continued several days; such Liberal leaders as William E. Forster, John Bright and Sir Wilfrid Lawson censuring the Ministry's action. Mr. Cross replied, expressing great distrust of Russia as to her designs on Constantinople. A large anti-Russian meeting was held in London.

British
Mediterranean
Fleet.

Toward the close of January, 1878, the British fleet in the Mediterranean under Vice-Admiral Hornby approached Gallipoli, on the Dardanelles, and the guns of the fort fired a salute as the fleet approached; but the order to the fleet to advance was countermanded by the British Ministry, and Admiral Hornby returned to Besika Bay.

On February 3, 1878, an armistice was signed at Adrianople by the Grand Duke Nicholas on the Part of Russia and by Server and Namyk Pashas on the part of Turkey. The armistice was signed on the following basis: 1st, the erection of Bulgaria into a principality; 2d, a war-indemnity or territory compensation; 3d, the independence of Roumania, Servia and Montenegro, with increase of territory for each; 4th, reforms in Bosnia and Herzegovina; 5th, an ulterior understanding between the Sultan and Czar regarding the Dardanelles; 6th, the evacuation of the Danubian fortresses and Erzeroum by the Turks. The conclusion of the armistice caused great rejoicings in St. Petersburg. The Czar issued an address to his troops, declaring that they were "still far from the end" and should hold themselves prepared until a durable peace was secured. Thanksgiving services were held in all the churches in the Russian capital, salvos of artillery were fired, flags were flying, and in the evening the city was brilliantly illuminated.

Armistice.

In accordance with the armistice conditions, the Turks evacuated the fortresses of Widin, Rustchuk, Silistria, Belgradschik and Erzeroum, which then were occupied by the Russians; and, on the approach of the Russian forces toward Constantinople, the Ottoman troops retired from the Buyuk-Cheknejek lines, which comprised the fortifications of the Turkish capital. The office of Grand Vizier was now abolished, and a new Turkish Ministry was formed with Ahmed Vefik Effendi at its head.

Evacuation of Turkish Fortresses.

Count Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian Chancellor, proposed a conference to the Great European Powers to settle the European questions growing out of the Russo-Turkish War. Count Andrassy's proposal was accepted by Germany, France, Italy, Great Britain and Russia; but Russia objected strenuously to holding the conference in Vienna or any other great capital, preferring some small town in one of the minor states.

Count Andrassy's Proposal.

After an animated debate, the supplementary credit of six million pounds sterling was voted by the British House of Commons, amid deafening cheers, February 6, 1878; and Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced that five British war vessels had been ordered to Constantinople to protect the lives and property of British subjects. There was tremendous excitement outside of Parliament. Crowds thronged the streets, singing *God Save the Queen* and making demonstrations in favor of the government. A rumor that the British fleet had again been ordered to the Dardanelles caused intense excitement. The windows of Mr. Gladstone's house and of *The Daily News* office were broken by excited mobs.

Credit Voted by the British Parliament.

Excitement in London.

The relations between Great Britain and Russia were now extremely critical. Prince Gortschakoff, the Russian Chancellor, informed the

Prince
Gortscha-
koff's
Declara-
tion.

other Great Powers that Russia contemplated sending troops into Constantinople, because Great Britain and other nations had determined to send war vessels there for the protection of their subjects. Austria-Hungary followed Great Britain's example so far as to ask leave for her fleet to enter the Dardanelles. The Sultan, however, refused so far as to authorize the British fleet to advance to his capital, on the ground that Russian troops might occupy the city if he did so. But the British government instructed Admiral Hornby to pass the Dardanelles, with or without leave. Admiral Hornby accordingly passed the Dardanelles with his five iron-clads on February 13, 1878, and entered the Sea of Marmora, taking a position off Prince's Islands, thirteen miles south of Constantinople. Thereupon the Russians threatened to enter the Turkish capital. The Sultan endeavored to stop the advance of the British fleet and the entry of the Russian troops by personal appeals to Queen Victoria and the Czar Alexander II., but his efforts were ineffectual. The British fleet advanced, and the Russians occupied the suburbs of Constantinople.

Excite-
ment in
England.

A rumor that the Russians had entered Constantinople and that the British fleet had arrived there caused intense excitement in London. In the British House of Commons, on February 14, 1878, Sir Stafford Northcote, Chancellor of the Exchequer, stated that Admiral Hornby's fleet had orders to pass the Dardanelles, with or without the Sultan's leave, and that the ships were prepared for action. This announcement was received with loud cheers. Lord Derby made a similar statement in the House of Lords and read a dispatch from Prince Gortschakoff informing him of the Russian occupation of Constantinople.

Excite-
ment in
Austria-
Hungary.

There was also great excitement in Austria-Hungary. Count Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian Chancellor, had a long conference with the Emperor Francis Joseph; and the Emperor sent for the Archduke Albrecht, the Field-Marshal and commander-in-chief of the Austro-Hungarian army, for the purpose of concerting important military measures. The excitement in Vienna and Pesth was extreme, and the Hungarian press was bitterly hostile to Russia. Great Britain and Austria-Hungary were acting in full accord, and an alliance between those two Powers was imminent.

Lord
Derby's
Protest
and
Russia's
Reply.

The danger of war between Great Britain and Russia was increasing hourly. Lord Derby protested against the Russian occupation of Constantinople and intimated to the Russian government that any attempt to seize Gallipoli or menace the communications of the British fleet might lead to serious consequences. This intimation was disregarded by Russia, as Russian troops occupied part of the Constantinople line of defenses on February 15th. There was great excitement in St. Petersburg. Russia addressed a conciliatory note to Great

Britain in regard to Gallipoli, and the document was considered in an informal meeting of the British Cabinet. The British fleet now withdrew from Prince's Islands to Mundania Bay, forty-two miles south of Constantinople. The Czar asked the Sultan's permission for the entry of a portion of the Russian army into Constantinople, but the Sultan refused the Czar's request.

**With-
drawal
of the
British
Fleet.**

The Czar of Russia now appealed to the Emperor of Germany to use his efforts for the preservation of peace. Austria-Hungary appealed to Germany to intervene by dissuading Russia from occupying Constantinople; and Prince Bismarck, the German Chancellor, at Count Andrassy's solicitation and in compliance with a request from St. Petersburg to make German influence felt, intimated to Prince Gortschakoff that he was straining the situation beyond reasonable bounds. Russia accepted Prince Bismarck's friendly offices and issued a circular informing the other Great Powers that she had renounced the occupation of Constantinople at the Emperor William's request. There was great disappointment in St. Petersburg, because the Russian people had expected the moral support of Germany, whereas they now heard the Emperor of Germany, in his speech from the throne, referring to the program of the Constantinople Conference of the previous year as the basis for a settlement. Thus friendly relations were restored between Russia and Austria-Hungary.

**Ger-
many's
Friendly
Interven-
tion.**

In the German Reichstag, on February 19, 1878, in response to an interpellation by Herr Benningsen, Prince Bismarck made a speech, in which he said that Germany had no rivalry with Great Britain except a friendly one in trade; that he would not advise the Emperor to go to war unless German interests were endangered, and that those interests were not then in peril. On the same day, in reply to a question of the Lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath, Prince Auersperg, the Austrian Premier, expressed dissatisfaction with some of the peace stipulations, but expected that the European Conference would make matters all right.

**Attitude
of Prince
Bismarck
and
Prince
Auers-
perg.**

On February 24, 1878, a joint council of the Ministries of Austria and Hungary was held at Vienna and lasted five hours. The Emperor Francis Joseph presided. Count Andrassy stated that he desired a vote of confidence and a vote of credit for military purposes, to support Austria-Hungary's views at the European Conference, as some of Russia's conditions were inadmissible. The Ministers empowered Count Andrassy to ask the Delegations for a credit not exceeding sixty million florins. Both Count Andrassy and the Emperor Francis Joseph assured the council that they earnestly desired peace.

**Austria-
Hun-
gary's
Precau-
tion.**

On February 24, 1878, Lord Beaconsfield's supporters assembled in great force near the Marble Arch, in London, for the purpose of

**Hostile
Meetings
in
London.**

voting down the peace resolutions and protesting against any attempt to embarrass the Ministry and against a Russian occupation of Constantinople. After passing enthusiastic resolutions in favor of the Ministry, the crowd attacked and temporarily broke up the peace meeting which was in progress in Hyde Park. After some time Charles Bradlaugh moved the resolutions in favor of peace, but he was frequently obliged to change his position. Several fights occurred, and the mob sang *Rule Britannia*. After Mr. Bradlaugh's departure there was some heated discussions and more fighting. It was estimated that there were from eighty thousand to one hundred thousand people around the park, of whom ten thousand actually participated in the proceedings. The assemblage dispersed gradually; but a large and excited mob went to hoot before Mr. Gladstone's residence, and this mob was prevented from doing any damage only by a strong force of police.

**Russia's
Quarrels
with
Servia
and Rou-
mania.**

In the meantime Russia quarreled with Servia and Roumania. Servia claimed part of Old Servia, which Russia desired to annex to Bulgaria. Late in February, 1878, the Russians occupied Pirot and Ak-Palanka; the Servians withdrawing to Nissa and Prince Milan protesting against the Russian occupation. The Russians continued to advance, but Prince Milan remained at Nissa with a strong force and refused to evacuate the place. Russia, however, reassured Servia relative to Nissa. Roumania was dissatisfied because Russia was determined to seize Roumanian Bessarabia and to give the Dobrudja in exchange. Prince Charles of Roumania threatened to abdicate if Russia persisted, but Russia showed no signs of relinquishing her designs upon Bessarabia.

**Prelim-
inary
Peace
of San
Stefano.**

After long negotiation, the preliminary treaty of peace was signed on March 2, 1878, at San Stefano, a small village ten miles from Constantinople, by the Grand Duke Nicholas on the part of Russia and by Server and Namyk Pashas on the part of Turkey. The Grand Duke Nicholas held a grand review the next day, Sunday, March 3, 1878, and formally announced the event to his troops. The news produced unbounded enthusiasm in St. Petersburg; and an immense multitude assembled before the palace, shouting and singing *God Save the Czar*. The principal conditions of the treaty were the following: 1st, Batoum, Kars, Ardahan and the district of Bayazid to be ceded to Russia; 2d, the question of the Straits to be reserved for further consideration; 3d, the question of the navigation of the Danube to remain in *status quo*; 4th, a zone to be left between Montenegro and Servia, so as to enable the Porte to maintain communication with Bosnia and Herzegovina; 5th, the new Principality of Bulgaria to include Bourgas, Varna and Kustendje, but not Salonica or Adrianople; 6th,

Russia to have power to cede the Dobrudja to Roumania in exchange for Roumanian Bessarabia; 7th, the money indemnity to be twelve million pounds sterling, in addition to the territorial cession. The Czar and the Sultan exchanged congratulatory telegrams, and the Peace of San Stefano was speedily ratified by the Russian and Turkish governments.

Great Britain and Austria-Hungary were greatly dissatisfied with the Treaty of San Stefano. It was proposed to settle the Eastern question by a Congress of the Great European Powers at Berlin, but misunderstandings soon arose concerning it. Great Britain demanded that the whole treaty should be submitted to the Congress, and her demand was sustained by Austria-Hungary. The *London Times*, a journal extremely favorable to Russia, contended that Russia must submit every one of the peace conditions to the Congress. This demand was made because it was believed that special and secret arrangements had been made between Russia and Turkey, independent of the treaty. This, however, was denied by the Russian press. In Germany the government organs, such as the *Berlin Post*, *National Zeitung* and others, previously of Russian sympathies, now contended that precautions must be taken to prevent the Dardanelles and Bulgaria from becoming Russian property. In the British House of Lords, on March 11th, Lord Derby, in reply to Lord Strathden, said that it would be useless and foolish for Great Britain to participate in the Congress unless it had real power.

**Proposed
European
Congress.**

The German government determined not to issue invitations to the Congress until all difficulties about the subjects to be considered thereat should be removed. Germany, however, claimed the right to preside over the Congress. Prince Bismarck notified Austria-Hungary that, in consequence of his intervention, Russia had consented to submit all the peace conditions, without exception, to the Congress for discussion, should the Congress make a demand to that effect. Great Britain still persistently refused to participate in the Congress until Russia gave a formal engagement to submit all the clauses of the Treaty of San Stefano to the Congress. Prince Gortschakoff reiterated a previous promise that the full treaty should be communicated to the other Great Powers. On March 19th Count Andrassy made a conciliatory speech to the Hungarian Delegation. In the British House of Lords, on March 21st, Lord Derby, in reply to a speech by Lord Strathden on the Eastern question, reiterated his former declaration that Great Britain expected the whole treaty to be submitted to the Congress; otherwise a Congress would be useless.

**Attitude
of the
Great
Powers
Thereon.**

In the meantime Austria-Hungary was taking precautionary measures against Russian aggression. On March 9th a demand was pre-

Austria-Hungary's Precaution.

sented to the Austrian and Hungarian Delegations for grants on account of extraordinary and urgent army and navy requirements. A spirited debate occurred in the sub-committee of the Hungarian Delegation, M. Falk and Count Andrassy sustaining the demand for a grant. On March 13th the Hungarian Delegation voted in committee the grant demanded for urgent and extraordinary army and navy requirements. Count Andrassy informed the Hungarian Budget Committee that Austria-Hungary never would consent to the extension of Bulgaria to the Ægean Sea or to a Russian occupation of the province for more than six months. Herr Wahrmann and others declared that the Hungarians were ready to enter upon war if unavoidably necessary. The Budget Committee of the Austrian Delegation adopted, by a vote of eleven to nine, a resolution to the effect that, if a display of military force became unavoidable, the Austro-Hungarian government be empowered to incur, with the consent of the Ministries of Austria and Hungary, an expenditure not exceeding sixty million florins. On March 21st the Austrian Delegation granted a credit of sixty million florins to the Austro-Hungarian government, by a vote of thirty-nine to twenty.

London Peace Meeting.

On March 10th a peace meeting was held in Hyde Park, in London, but was dispersed by a disorderly mob, which cheered for Lord Beaconsfield and Musurus Pasha, the Turkish ambassador in London, and groaned before Mr. Gladstone's residence. Mr. Gladstone and his wife, when going to church, were obliged to take refuge in a friend's house, whence they were escorted by the police. The Prince of Teck was mistaken for Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador, and was insulted and hustled by the mob.

Great Britain's Activity.

In the meantime Great Britain displayed the greatest vigilance. The House of Commons voted the navy estimates on March 15th. All officers of the Corps of Royal Engineers first on the list for foreign service were ordered to provide themselves with field equipments and to be ready for immediate service, and several more iron-clads were sent to the Dardanelles. Great Britain obtained permission from Turkey to disembark troops on the island of Tenedos, on the west coast of Asia Minor, and to send four more iron-clads to the Sea of Marmora. M. Onou, the dragoman of the Russian legation at Constantinople, protested against these proceedings. On March 31st the British landed some war material on the island of Tenedos.

The Russians on the Bosphorus.

In the meantime the Russians continued to tighten their hold on Constantinople and the Bosphorus, distributing troops in the suburbs of the Turkish capital; and a Russian division was marching on Bulair, an important position on the isthmus of Gallipoli; while Russian torpedo boats were placed in the Bosphorus.

About the middle of March, 1878, a force of twelve thousand Turks landed at Volo, in Thessaly, and soon crushed the Greek insurrection in that Turkish province. The Turkish irregulars committed the greatest outrages—plundering, massacring and devastating; twenty villages being burned or pillaged, the inhabitants having fled or perished. The insurgents were afterward defeated by the Turks.

**Turkish
Outrages
in
Thessaly.**

In the meantime the Russians seized Roumanian Bessarabia; having, on March 6th, occupied the Bessarabian towns of Ismail, Cahul and Bolgrad; the Roumanian government protesting against the occupation. It was stated that the Roumanian agent would hand to Count Andrassy a memorandum declaring that Roumania refused to be bound by the Russo-Turkish peace preliminaries. The Servians, who were also dissatisfied with the Treaty of San Stefano, reoccupied Vranja. The Grand Duke Nicholas made a pressing demand on Serbia to remobilize her reserves as a demonstration against Austria-Hungary, but Serbia declined with firmness.

**Roumania
and
Servia
Dissatis-
fied.**

Great Britain made a formal demand on Russia in regard to the submission of the Treaty of San Stefano to the proposed European Congress, to which Russia gave an unsatisfactory reply. Prince Bismarck continued to mediate between Great Britain and Russia for the preservation of peace. Russia's suggestion that the Congress be held without Great Britain was declined by the other Great Powers. Germany deferred issuing calls for a Congress until Great Britain and Russia should agree. The *Berlin Post*, one of Prince Bismarck's organs, intimated that Germany would never fight for Russian or any other interests and that Russia had better restrain her ambition.

**Attitude
of Great
Britain,
Russia
and
Germany.**

General Ignatieff went on a mission to Vienna and had interviews with Count Andrassy and the Emperor Francis Joseph with the view of isolating Great Britain from the other Great Powers, but his mission was a failure. General Ignatieff declared that the Russian army would remain before Constantinople as long as the British fleet stayed in the Sea of Marmora. Count Andrassy informed General Ignatieff that Austria-Hungary regarded the Treaty of San Stefano as clashing with Austro-Hungarian and European interests, and General Ignatieff immediately started for St. Petersburg. Austria-Hungary refused to recognize the Treaty of San Stefano and prepared to mobilize an army of four hundred thousand men on the Bosnian frontier; and Serbia, becoming alarmed at Austria-Hungary's attitude, remobilized her army to resist any threatened encroachment on Servian independence.

**General
Ignatieff's
Mission
to
Vienna.**

**Austria-
Hungary
and
Servia.**

In the British House of Lords, on March 28th, Lord Derby announced his resignation of the office of Secretary of Foreign Affairs, because the Ministry had determined to call out the reserves—a measure which he did not deem prudent in the interests of peace. Lord Derby

**Lord
Derby's
Resigna-
tion.**

British
Reserves
Called
Out.

was succeeded in office by Lord Salisbury. In the House of Commons, on March 28th, the Right Hon. Gathorne Hardy, Secretary of War, in reply to various questions, announced that the Ministry intended to call out the reserves; and on April 1st the queen's message calling out the reserves was read in the House of Commons by the Speaker. On April 9th, in the debate on the address to the queen in reply to her message, the Ministry was sustained by a vote of three hundred and nineteen to sixty-four.

Lord
Salisbury's
Circular
and
Prince
Gortscha-
koff's
Reply.

On April 1st Lord Salisbury, the new British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, issued a circular note to the other Great European Powers, complaining of the terms imposed by Russia upon Turkey and asserting that the treaties of 1856 and 1871 were still in force. Lord Salisbury's circular was received with favor in Vienna, and Austria-Hungary seemed disposed to act in diplomatic accord with Great Britain. Prince Bismarck's proposal for a European Congress to revise the treaties of 1856 and 1871 was accepted by Russia, but rejected by Great Britain. The other Great Powers asked Great Britain to state her views. The *Berlin Post*, Bismarck's organ, adopted Lord Salisbury's criticisms of the Treaty of San Stefano, intimating that Great Britain would not stand alone in maintaining that the Treaty of Paris of 1856, until amended, was the law of Europe, and said that Russia would have no choice between war and parting with the Treaty of San Stefano, as she would do if she entered a European Congress. Prince Gortschakoff replied to Lord Salisbury's circular, contesting it point by point and defending the Russo-Turkish treaty; but in the main his reply was conciliatory. Prince Gortschakoff also replied to Austria-Hungary's objections to the treaty. Gortschakoff's note was not reassuring, and Germany endeavored to bring about an understanding. In May an effort was made to settle the question by a simultaneous withdrawal of the British fleet and the Russian troops from the vicinity of Constantinople, but without success.

Russian
Military
Move-
ments.

The Russians, expecting a war with Great Britain, prepared for it by moving troops toward Gallipoli and erecting fortifications at certain points in Southern Roumelia. About the end of March, Russia ordered the building of one hundred more torpedo-boats. The Turks then had an army encamped in the lines of Buyukdere and fifty battalions in the lines defending Constantinople.

Russo-
Rouma-
nian
Quarrel.

The quarrel between Russia and Roumania growing out of Russia's demand for the cession of Roumanian Bessarabia to Russia became extremely bitter. The Roumanians became so hostile that they hindered the passage of Russian provision columns through their territory and threatened to forbid it altogether. Prince Gortschakoff declared to

Prince Ghika, the Roumanian agent at St. Petersburg, that Russia's decision in regard to Bessarabia was irrevocable; that Russia would not allow the question to be brought before the proposed European Congress; and that, if Roumania refused to cede Bessarabia, Russia would take it by force. Prince Gortschakoff also informed the Roumanian agent that if Roumania intended to protest against the article in the Russo-Turkish treaty providing for the communication of the Russian army in Bulgaria with Russia the Czar would order the Russian occupation of Roumania and the disbandment of the Roumanian army. The Roumanian agent replied that Russia should have treated with Roumania, not with Turkey, concerning the passage of the Russian army through Roumanian territory; to which Prince Gortschakoff rejoined that Russia insisted upon a free passage through Roumania. There was general sympathy with Roumania throughout Europe.

Toward the middle of April, 1878, the Russian troops arrived at various places on the Roumanian bank of the Danube. On April 15th Prince Charles of Roumania started to join his army. Constant quarrels occurred between the Russian and Roumanian officers and soldiers. The Russians prevented a train laden with ammunition from leaving Bucharest for the Roumanian army. The entire Roumanian militia was called out. The Russians stationed vessels laden with stone, ready to close the Sulina mouth of the Danube, if necessary. The Russians claimed that the military convention with Roumania concerning the passage of Russian troops lasted until a definitive peace was concluded. The Roumanians withdrew their troops to the Carpathian mountains, where they boasted that they would make another Plevna if the Russians attacked them. The commander of a Russian division near Bucharest informed the Roumanian government that his troops would remain in Roumania until they returned to Russia. The Roumanian government asked Russia for explanations. The relations between Austria-Hungary and Roumania became closer. The Emperor William I. of Germany asked his relative, Prince Charles of Roumania, to yield Bessarabia to Russia and to abdicate if the Roumanians raised difficulties; but the prince refused and went to his army. This German interference offended Austria-Hungary. The Russians, considering their communications menaced by the position of the Roumanian army, determined to occupy Plojesta. Roumania determined to protest, at the proposed European Congress, against the cession of Bessarabia to Russia.

War
Threat-
ened
between
Russia
and Rou-
mania.

In the meantime Bulgaria was in a condition of anarchy. The Bulgarians were taking a terrible revenge for the Turkish outrages of 1876. The Mussulmans were goaded to despair by the tyranny of their former victims. The Russians took repressive measures and

Bulgarian
Outrages.

**Mussul-
man
Insurrec-
tion in
Rou-
melia.**

executed three Bulgarians. The country was full of refugees from the scattered armies and disbanded garrisons of the Turks, who were joined by the inhabitants of the Mussulman villages in a guerrilla warfare against the native Christians and the Russian troops. About eighty thousand Mussulmans in the Balkan districts armed themselves with cannon and rifles left behind by Suleiman Pasha's army at the time of his retreat and attacked the Russians, who lost over nine hundred men in the fight. The Bulgarian Christians attacked eight Mussulman villages and committed great outrages. The Mussulman insurgents surprised a Russian encampment at Philippopolis and took one thousand prisoners. Fifteen fresh Russian battalions were sent against the Roumelian insurgents. At the beginning of May heavy fighting occurred in the vicinity of Haskoi, and twenty-one Mohammedan villages were destroyed. The trouble was finally settled and quiet was restored.

**Russo-
Turkish
Dispute.**

Early in May, 1878, General Todleben, the Russian commander in Turkey, demanded the immediate evacuation of Shumla, Varna and Batoum by the Turks. The Turks refused until the Russians retired to Adrianople, in accordance with the Peace of San Stefano; but the Russians maintained that they could not withdraw until the three fortresses were evacuated. General Todleben threatened to occupy Constantinople in case the Turks did not evacuate the fortresses. The matter was finally arranged; but the Turks did not evacuate the fortresses until the end of July, when the Russians retired from the vicinity of Constantinople.

**Austria-
Hunga-
ry's
Precau-
tions.**

In the Austrian Reichsrath, on May 14th, Prince Auersperg, the Austrian Premier, made a speech indicating Austria-Hungary's intention of opposing Russian aggression; and on the same day Herr Tisza, the Hungarian Premier, made a speech of the same tenor in the Hungarian Diet. Both Premiers asked for a credit vote. Herr Tisza said that it was necessary to take precautions on the northern, southern and eastern frontiers of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. On May 16th the Lower House of the Hungarian Diet passed a bill providing for a credit of sixty million florins. Austro-Hungarian troops were ready to be sent to the frontier.

**Great
Britain's
War
Prepara-
tions.**

In the meantime Great Britain had been making extensive preparations for war. Six thousand Sepoys were brought to Malta from British India, and additional iron-clads were sent to the Eastern Mediterranean. Recruiting was going on briskly in England, and factories for the manufacture of arms were working day and night. A gun-boat flotilla was to be prepared for the defense of the British coast, and a fleet was to be sent into the Baltic to operate against the Russians in that quarter. The British government also chartered one

hundred fast cruisers and threatened to treat Russian privateers as pirates. The preparations for war were proceeding actively in the arsenals and dock-yards, and precautions were taken for the defense of British India.

In the meantime Russia had not been idle. The Russian garrisons in Poland were moving southward, and two hundred thousand Russian troops were moving toward the Gallician frontier of Austria-Hungary. Moscow and St. Petersburg were full of troops, and new levies were coming forward constantly. The Russian people were bitter against Great Britain and Austria-Hungary. The Russian finances were in a wretched condition. The Russian government was so heavily in debt that it did not dare to publish the weekly returns, and Russian credit was so bad that the Russian government could not borrow money from the German bankers under thirty per cent discount. The continued issue of paper money was necessary.

**Russia's
Prepara-
tions and
Finances.**

About the middle of May, 1878, Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador in London, went on a special mission to St. Petersburg for the purpose of bringing about an understanding between the British and Russian governments about the meeting of the proposed Congress of the Great Powers.

**Count
Schouva-
loff's
Mission.**

On May 20, 1878, a riot occurred before the Seraglio in Constantinople, originating with a band of refugees, who endeavored to restore ex-Sultan Amurath V. to the Ottoman throne; but the outbreak was speedily suppressed.

**Riot in
Constan-
tinople.**

Count Schouvaloff's mission was entirely successful. Through his efforts and those of Prince Bismarck, an understanding was finally reached between Great Britain and Russia; and it was agreed to settle the dispute about the Russo-Turkish treaty by a Congress of the Great European Powers at Berlin. Important concessions were made on both sides. Count Schouvaloff, on his return to London, brought with him the assurances of Russia's desire for peace; and he and Lord Salisbury agreed upon a memorandum as to the terms upon which Russia and Great Britain would enter the Congress. The terms agreed upon were the following: 1. Bulgaria to be divided into two provinces—one north of the Balkans, to be under a prince; the other south of the Balkans, but not touching the Ægean Sea, with a Christian governor and a government similar to that of a British colony; while the Turkish troops were to retire permanently from Bulgaria. 2. Great Britain agreed not to oppose the retrocession of Bessarabia or the annexation of Batoum to Russia, and reserved the right to discuss in the Congress international arrangements relative to the Danube. 3. Russia promised not to advance farther her Asiatic frontier, nor to take indemnity in land, nor to interfere with the claims of British creditors; the ques-

**Anglo-
Russian
Agree-
ment.**

tion of payment to be discussed by the Congress, which was also to reorganize Thessaly, Epirus and the other Greek provinces of Turkey. 4. Russia was to restore Bayazid to Turkey, while Turkey was to cede the province of Kotour to Persia. 5. Russia agreed that the question of the passage of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus should remain in *status quo*. 6. Great Britain reserved the right to suggest at the Congress that Europe should reorganize Bulgaria, and to discuss the question of the occupation of that province by Russia, and also the question of the passage of Russian troops through Roumania. 7. The Turkish promises of reform in Armenia were to be understood to have been made to Great Britain as well as to Russia. The agreement reserved to Russia and Great Britain the right to raise and discuss in the Congress all questions not raised by its stipulations; but if, after agreed to, Russia persisted in maintaining the treaty as modified, Great Britain would not dispute her right to do so. At Great Britain's demand, Count Schouvaloff finally consented to submit the whole treaty to the Congress. All the Great Powers adhered to this proposal, thus sustaining Great Britain.

Count
Andras-
sy's
Objec-
tions
to the
Treaty
of San
Stefano.

On May 29, 1878, Count Andrassy mentioned to the Austrian Delegation the points brought to the notice of Russia and the other Great Powers as chiefly affecting Austro-Hungarian interests. In an interview with the Hungarian Delegation the next day, May 30, 1878, Count Andrassy used the following strong language: "The monarchy is vested on the basis of historical development, and let him who touches it beware." There continued to be a misunderstanding between Russia and Austria-Hungary, and Austria-Hungary continued her military preparations with the greatest activity. Austria-Hungary strongly opposed the extension of the Montenegrin territory in the direction of the Adriatic.

European
Congress
Called.

On May 25, 1878, Germany was informed of the happy solution of the Anglo-Russian difficulty, and was requested to immediately issue invitations to the other Great European Powers to meet in a Congress at Berlin for the definitive settlement of the Eastern question. Great Britain, Russia, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy and Turkey accepted Germany's invitations; and it was agreed that the Congress should meet at Berlin on June 13, 1878. The following were the plenipotentiaries of the European Powers represented in the Congress: Prince Bismarck, Prince Hohenlohe and Count von Bülow for Germany; the Earl of Beaconsfield, the Marquis of Salisbury and Odo Russell for Great Britain; Prince Gortschakoff, Count Schouvaloff and M. d'Oubril for Russia; Count Andrassy, Count Karoyli and Count Kaymerle for Austria-Hungary; M. Waddington and the Marquis de St. Vallier for France; Count Corti and Count de Launay for Italy; and Cara-

Its Plen-
ipoten-
tiaries.



THE BERLIN CONGRESS

From the Painting by A. Von Werner

theodōri Effendi and Mehemet Ali, the former a Greek Christian and the latter a Prussian by the name of Schultz, for Turkey.

The European Congress for the settlement of the Eastern question assembled in the Radziwell Palace, in Berlin, at one o'clock p. m., June 13, 1878, and was organized with the election of Prince Bismarck as President. Nothing was done on that day, excepting the opening formalities. The leading figures in the Congress were Prince Bismarck and Lord Beaconsfield. Lord Beaconsfield made a good impression on Prince Bismarck in their interviews. On June 18th Great Britain proposed the admission of Greece on all subjects concerning the Christians, and the Congress agreed to this the next day. Russia and Austria-Hungary came to an agreement similar to the Anglo-Russian agreement.

**Meeting
of the
Congress
at Berlin.**

The Turkish plenipotentiaries presented many memorials to the Congress from the Sultan's Christian subjects, praying that they might be left under the Sultan's rule and protesting strongly against being handed over to Russia, Bulgaria or Austria-Hungary. The discussion of the Bulgarian question produced a crisis at the Congress; as Great Britain and Austria-Hungary, having concluded an agreement to support each other at the Congress, firmly demanded the evacuation of Bulgaria by the Russian troops. Great Britain threatened to withdraw from the Congress unless her demand was complied with. Prince Gortschakoff and Lord Beaconsfield were both angry, and neither was willing to give way. Lord Beaconsfield threatened to leave the Congress with his colleagues and to order the British fleet to proceed to Constantinople at once, unless his demand was complied with. An open rupture and a dissolution of the Congress was prevented only by the efforts of Prince Bismarck, whose skill and tact finally cooled the anger of Lord Beaconsfield and Prince Gortschakoff and thus preserved peace. Through Bismarck's influence and efforts, Russia conceded the British and Austro-Hungarian demands, and war was thus averted. The Congress agreed to allow Austria-Hungary to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Bosnians and Herzegovinians, and also the Ottoman Porte, protested against the Austro-Hungarian occupation; and Servia also opposed the scheme.

**Turkey's
Protest.**

**Crisis
at the
Congress.**

**Austria-
Hungary
and
Bosnia.**

**Cretan
Revolt
against
Turkey.**

Toward the middle of June, 1878, a revolt against the Turks broke out in the island of Candia, or Crete. Battles were fought at Canea and Apocorona between the Turkish forces and the Cretan insurgents; and on June 29th the Turks defeated the Cretans at Canea, capturing their position.

Early in July, 1878, the whole world was surprised by suddenly learning that, before the Congress had assembled, Great Britain had secretly concluded a defensive treaty with the Ottoman Porte, by which

**Anglo-
Turkish
Treaty.**

Turkey's
Cession
of Cyprus
to Great
Britain.

Asiatic Turkey was placed under the protection of Great Britain, which promised to resist, by force of arms, any further encroachments by Russia upon Asiatic Turkey, while Turkey promised to introduce the necessary reforms throughout her dominions and ceded the island of Cyprus to Great Britain. In July, 1878, Sir Garnet Wolesley occupied Cyprus with the Sepoy troops at Malta. This treaty, although concluded on June 4th, only became known to the British Parliament on July 8th, on which day it was communicated to the Berlin Congress as a matter of courtesy. It occasioned surprise in England and on the Continent of Europe. Both Houses of Parliament were utterly taken by surprise when it became known that such a treaty had been concluded. Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, defended the treaty in a speech in the House of Commons and was loudly cheered when he concluded his speech. This treaty gave Great Britain control of the Euphrates valley and secured her route to India—a railway being in contemplation through the valley from the Mediterranean to British India. Thus Turkey virtually placed herself in the hands of Great Britain. The treaty thrilled the English people, and Lord Beaconsfield was the hero of the hour. In an interview with Prince Gortschakoff, at Berlin, on July 9th, Lord Beaconsfield fully and frankly defended the Anglo-Turkish treaty. Prince Gortschakoff declared that he saw nothing objectionable in the treaty, as he entertained no projects of aggrandizement on the coast of Asiatic Turkey. He perceived no difference between Great Britain's occupation of Cyprus and her occupation of Malta. He always would be pleased with everything tending to strengthen Great Britain's road to India, because it calculated to promote the prosperity of the whole world. Prince Gortschakoff and Lord Beaconsfield then shook hands, as a pledge of the new friendly relations between Russia and Great Britain.

Definitive
Treaty of
Berlin.

The definitive Treaty of Berlin, as framed by the European Congress, was finally completed on July 13, 1878, on which day the treaty was signed by all the plenipotentiaries; and the Congress adjourned, after a parting speech from Prince Bismarck, who expressed the hope that European peace was established firmly. The treaty was quite lengthy, embracing sixty-four articles. We have space only for an outline of its leading provisions. The treaty provided for the new automatic tributary Principality of Bulgaria, under the suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey, with a Christian prince and a national militia, and to be limited on the south by the Balkans; the prince to be elected by the Bulgarian people and to be confirmed by the Ottoman Porte and by the Six Great European Powers. There was to be formed the new province of Eastern Roumelia, south of the Balkans, under the direct political authority of the Sultan, having administrative autonomy and

a Christian Governor-General; and religious and political liberty was to be established therein. The Russian army in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia was to be limited to fifty thousand men and was to complete the evacuation of the territory by the end of a year. Bosnia and Herzegovina were assigned to Austria-Hungary, excepting Sanjak and Novi-Bazar. The independence of Montenegro was recognized, with religious liberty and the annexation of Antivari. The independence of Serbia was recognized on condition of granting religious freedom, while Roumania was to cede Bessarabia to Russia in exchange for the Dobrudja. The fortifications on the Danube were to be razed, while the navigation of the river was to be free. The Ottoman Porte was required to introduce necessary reforms in the island of Candia, or Crete. Religious liberty was to be maintained in Turkey on the widest basis. Turkey was required to cede Batoun, Kars and Ardahan to Russia. Turkey was also required to cede the province of Kotour to Persia. All the European Powers represented in the Congress speedily ratified the Treaty of Berlin.

Great Britain came forth triumphant from the Congress of Berlin. A severe check had been put upon Russia's southward advance by the Anglo-Turkish treaty. Lord Beaconsfield had won more for Great Britain by diplomacy than other Ministers had won for her by war, and had raised British prestige to the highest point that it had reached since the battle of Waterloo. For a period of twenty years Great Britain in a large measure had remained isolated from the rest of Europe; but the brilliant diplomacy of Lord Beaconsfield restored her former supremacy in European councils, and she was again the leading power of Europe. Great Britain was restored to her rightful place in the European States-System, and that was a great gain to the world. All England rang with joyful acclamations at the great triumph that had been achieved without firing a shot, and the British press was lavish in its praises of the successful statesman and diplomat.

Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury were accorded a grand reception at Dover and in London upon their return from Berlin. The reception in London resembled that of a triumphant warrior returning from a field of conquest, and was given with the same enthusiasm as that with which the ancient Romans greeted their conquering generals on their return from their victorious campaigns. The scenes on that occasion at Charing Cross, Trafalgar Square, Parliament street, Whitehall and Downing street on Lord Beaconsfield's arrival were exciting; and Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury addressed more than one hundred thousand persons. Queen Victoria conferred the Order of the Garter upon the distinguished diplomats, and both were honored with the freedom of the city of London.

**Great
Britain's
Triumph.**

**Lord
Beacons-
field's
Enthu-
siastic
Recep-
tion in
London.**

Austria-Hungary's Occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Austria-Hungary obtained possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina only after a struggle of two months with the inhabitants, August and September, 1878. The Austro-Hungarian forces, two hundred thousand strong, under Generals Zach, Szapary, Tegethoff, Jovanovich and Philippovich and the Duke of Württemberg, had almost daily conflicts with the Bosnians and Herzegovinians; but finally the insurrection was crushed, and the Austro-Hungarian forces occupied Serajevo and Mostar, the capitals respectively of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Austro-Hungarian Crisis.

The Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina threatened to produce a Cabinet crisis in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Magyars of Hungary were opposed strenuously to the annexation of any more Slavonic territory, because they were jealous of the preponderance of the Slavonic race over the Magyars. The Hungarian Radicals protested against the occupation of Bosnia and demanded the relinquishment of the new provinces. There was a difficulty concerning Hungary's contingent of expenses in the campaign. A conflict between the Austrian and Hungarian Cabinets was imminent, but the Austrian Reichsrath sustained Count Andrassy's policy by a vote of one hundred and sixty to seventy.

Austria-Hungary and Turkey.

Grave complications were feared between Austria-Hungary and Turkey concerning the Bosnian question; and Turkey issued a circular to the Great Powers calling upon them to enforce the Treaty of Berlin against Austria-Hungary, thus exciting great indignation at Vienna.

Turkey, Greece and Montenegro.

The Greek question threatened complications between Turkey and Greece, but Mukhtar Pasha finally succeeded in his efforts to conciliate the Cretans and thus brought about the pacification of Crete. The delay of Turkey in ceding to Montenegro certain territory as specified in the Treaty of Berlin also seriously menaced the peace of Europe, as Russia proposed that the Great Powers should make a collective demand that Turkey should comply with the Treaty of Berlin in regard to the cession of territory to Montenegro.

Insurrection in Albania and Assassination of Mehemet Ali Pasha.

Early in September, 1878, an insurrection broke out in Albania, and the Albanian insurgents assassinated the Governor of Ipek and ten other officials. Mehemet Ali Pasha, who was sent to pacify the insurgents, was assassinated by them for his refusal to drive the Austro-Hungarians from Bosnia and Herzegovina. Early in October the Albanians massacred Saad Detden Pasha with one hundred and fifty Turkish officers and troops. The Albanians had forty-five thousand men armed and well equipped to resist the occupation of their territory by any Christian power, and they sent troops into Epirus to oppose the Greeks. The Christian population of Albania fled into Montenegro to escape the wrath of the insurgent Moslems of Albania, who

thus had defied the Porte because of its failure to prevent the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire.

Early in 1878 Great Britain, through Mr. Layard, her ambassador at Constantinople, endeavored to induce the Ottoman Porte to execute the promised reforms in Asia Minor. Mr. Layard insisted energetically upon the execution of the convention between Great Britain and Turkey abolishing the sale and importation of slaves, and demanded the freedom of the slaves who recently had taken refuge at the British consulate.

**Proposed
Turkish
Reforms.**

The Bulgarian Christians continued to plunder and outrage the Mussulmans. The Sultan appealed to the Czar to stop the massacres; and the Czar sent an amicable and reassuring reply, saying that the Russian commissioners in Bulgaria would severely punish all acts of injustice or cruelty committed against any of the inhabitants of the province. Christian refugees were fleeing in the rear of the Russians. The Russian troops were arming the Christians of Bulgaria, while the Turks were arming the Mussulmans. General Todleben, the Russian commander, issued orders to the Russian military authorities to prevent the formation of insurgent bands and to watch the movement of insurgent committees. Bashi-Bazouks and Circassians defeated the Bulgarian bands in Macedonia; and the Porte sent troops to crush the revolt in Macedonia, which was spreading rapidly into Epirus and Thessaly.

**Bulgarian
Outrages.**

Early in September, 1878, Germany issued a circular to the Great Powers asking them to unite in forcing Turkey to execute the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin. Austria-Hungary, France and Russia gave an affirmative reply.

**German
Circular.**

Late in September, 1878, the Russians withdrew from the vicinity of Constantinople; while the British fleet withdrew from Prince's Islands to Artaki Bay, in the Sea of Marmora, seventy miles southwest from Constantinople.

**British
Fleet and
Russian
Troops.**

About the middle of October, 1878, the Russians marched on Adrianople from the north. When the Russians evacuated Babaeski the Turks occupied the place; whereupon General Todleben, the Russian commander, summoned Safvet Pasha to evacuate the place. The Turkish commander complied, and the Russians reoccupied the town. The Turks then mounted guns on the Constantinople line of defenses.

**Russo-
Turkish
Dispute.**

Europe was still greatly agitated by the Eastern question. Lord Salisbury accused the Russians of conniving at the atrocities of the Bulgarian Christians, which accusation the Russian officials denied. Great distrust of Russia's sincerity in abiding by the Treaty of Berlin was manifested in England. Russia refused to evacuate the Dobrudja or Roumania until Roumania concluded an offensive and defensive

**Critical
Relations
of Great
Britain
and
Russia.**

Russia's
Assur-
ances.

alliance with Russia. At the close of October, 1878, Great Britain remonstrated with Russia for the non-fulfillment of the Treaty of Berlin; and Turkey asked Russia to explain why Russian troops had returned to Adrianople and other places in Eastern Roumelia. The London *Times* and the *Golos* of St. Petersburg assumed a warlike tone. On November 9, 1878, Lord Augustus Loftus, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, received assurances of the Czar's desire to faithfully respect the Treaty of Berlin. Russia also assured the other Great Powers of her sincerity to carry out to the letter the stipulations of the treaty.

Definitive
Peace of
Constantinople.

On February 8, 1879, a definitive treaty of peace between Turkey and Russia was signed at Constantinople, by Caratheodori and Ali Pashas on the part of Turkey, and by Prince Labanoff, the Russian ambassador at the Turkish capital, on the part of Russia. The treaty declared peace and cordial relations between the two Empires, and fixed the war-indemnity to be paid by Turkey to Russia at three hundred million paper roubles and deferred the settlement, while all the San Stefano stipulations which were modified by the Treaty of Berlin were to remain as modified, and the articles of the San Stefano Treaty not modified by the Berlin Treaty were to remain in force. Russian evacuation of Ottoman territory was to be completed forty days after the ratification of the treaty. The Russians began to evacuate Turkish territory the next day, February 9, 1879. The definitive treaty of peace was speedily ratified by the Turkish and Russian governments, and the Russian troops in Turkey were ordered to return home. St. Petersburg was brilliantly illuminated on the night of February 16, 1879, in honor of the event.

SECTION XVI.—SOCIALISM IN GERMANY (A. D. 1878–1879).

Karl
Marx and
Socialism
in
Germany.

FOR some years the doctrine of Socialism, or a reorganization of society on a basis of collectivism, had been growing in Germany. The doctrine of modern Socialism, or the collective, or common ownership and operation of all industries and public utilities by the state, or the public in general, was first promulgated in the writings of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels shortly before the European Revolutions of 1848. The principles of Socialism were set forth clearly in Marx's Communist Manifesto of 1847, and the political organization of German Socialism was begun by Ferdinand Lassalle in 1864. The prostration of all industries and the consequent distress among the lower classes of the population, which for several years had prevailed in

Industrial
Prostration and
General
Distress.

Germany, made the German people discontented with existing institutions. This discontent was increased by the heavy burden imposed upon the country by a gigantic military establishment. The German army consisted of nineteen hundred thousand men on a war footing and four hundred and one thousand on a peace footing. The withdrawal of so many men from useful occupations was a heavy strain upon the resources of the Empire. The prevalent discontent among the German masses tended to the growth of Socialistic ideas.

Bismarck was a believer in strong government and no friend of popular rights. In a speech in the German Federal Diet in 1848 he said: "All great cities should be swept from the face of the earth, because they are the centers of democracy and constitutionalism."

The prevailing discontent in Germany led to several attempts by Socialists to assassinate the Emperor William I., who was already eighty-one years of age. On May 11, 1878, while the aged Emperor was riding in his carriage in the Avenue Unter den Linden, in Berlin, he was fired at twice by a tinsmith from Leipsic, named Hoedel, aged twenty-one years. Both shots missed; and Hoedel ran into the Middle Avenue, followed by a crowd. After firing three shots at his pursuers he was arrested. Socialist documents were found in his possession. The city was soon greatly excited; and dense masses thronged the streets, testifying their respect for their aged and beloved Emperor. Great crowds assembled in front of the imperial palace, singing the national anthem and manifesting their loyalty and sympathy; and the venerated Emperor showed himself several times in acknowledgment of their expression of sympathy. Members of the Ministry, foreign ambassadors and German army officers hastened to the palace to tender their congratulations upon the Emperor's escape. In the evening the Emperor went to the opera and the royal theater and received great ovations. After three months Hoedel was tried and convicted, and was beheaded August 17, 1878, dying with firmness and shouting: "Bravo!"

Hoedel's attempt proved that Socialism was rooted deeply in Germany, and Socialistic meetings were prohibited by the government. The Ministry presented a bill in the German Reichstag for the repression of Socialistic excesses; but this bill was defeated by the Liberal majority in the Reichstag, because it curtailed liberty of speech and of the press.

Another attempt was made to assassinate the Emperor William I. in Berlin, on Sunday, June 2, 1878, by Dr. Nobiling, who, as the octogenarian Emperor was riding in his carriage in the Avenue Unter den Linden—the scene of Hoedel's attack—fired at him twice from a double-barreled gun, from a house in the avenue. The Emperor re-

**Bis-
marck's
Views.**

**Hoedel's
Attempt
to Assas-
sinate
Emperor
William
I.**

**Defeat
of Bis-
marck's
Anti-
Socialist
Bill.**

**Dr No-
biling's
Attempt
to Assas-
sinate
Emperor
William
I.**

ceived about thirty small shot in the face, body, arms and back. He felt great pain, but no serious apprehensions were felt as to his condition. Nobiling fired with a revolver upon persons attempting to arrest him and then inflicted several serious wounds upon his own head. When asked why he attempted to kill the Emperor he said: "The people have done away with God and want no more kings." He was thirty-two years of age, in comfortable circumstances, well educated, and held a diploma of Doctor of Philology. He resided in Berlin and frequented Socialist clubs. This second attempt to assassinate the Emperor caused a profound sensation in Berlin and throughout Germany. The people of Berlin were greatly excited and made warm manifestations of their regard for their venerable and beloved sovereign. Vast crowds assembled in front of the imperial palace, making anxious inquiries as to the Emperor's condition; and it was only by the almost-superhuman efforts of the police that Nobiling, while being carried a prisoner to the police-station, escaped the fury of the enraged populace, who demanded the would-be-assassin's life. The crowd forced its way into the palace, and dispersed only on receiving satisfactory news of the Emperor's condition. Loyal and sympathetic demonstrations in favor of the wounded Emperor were made throughout the Empire. The Emperor rapidly recovered from his wounds. After three months, Nobiling died of his self-inflicted wounds, September 10, 1878.

**Dissolu-
tion
of the
Reich-
stag.**

In consequence of these two attempts at regicide, the German government contemplated repressive measures; and, although the National Liberals now promised to support any bill to suppress Socialism, Prince Bismarck dissolved the Reichstag and ordered new elections, with the view of securing a reactionary majority to support any measure which the government might propose. The National Liberals made a determined effort to return their majority. The German government closed all Socialist meetings; and Herr Johann Most, a Socialist member of the Reichstag, was sentenced to six months' imprisonment for persisting in addressing a Socialist meeting at Chemnitz after the police had declared it closed.

**Election
of a New
Reich-
stag.**

The elections for the new Reichstag were held July 31, 1878, and resulted in the choice of one hundred and ten National Liberals, ninety-three Conservatives, ninety-six Ultramontanes and thirty-five members of various other parties. The Liberals lost thirty seats, though they still had a plurality. There was an immense increase in the Socialist vote, the party polling over seven hundred thousand votes. Sixty-six second ballots were necessary, as in that many cases there had been no definite results. The supplementary elections for the Reichstag were all over by the beginning of September, 1878. The total result was

that the Ultramontanes gained six seats and the Conservatives forty; while the National Liberals lost twenty-nine, the Progressists thirteen and the Social Democrats four; the Social Democrats having elected but eight members of the new Reichstag.

The new Reichstag convened in September, 1878, and Prince Bismarck immediately introduced a stringent measure for the suppression of Socialism. Debate on the Anti-Socialist bill opened in the Reichstag on September 16th; when Herr Reichensperger, Ultramontane, and Herr Bebel, Socialist, made speeches denouncing the bill; while Herr Bamberger, Liberal, Count von Eulenberg and Count Stolberg spoke in favor of the measure. The next day Prince Bismarck made an energetic speech in defense of the bill. The bill was debated about a month before its final passage.

On October 10, 1878, during the debate on the Anti-Socialist bill, Herr Hasselmann, a well-known Socialist agitator, made a violent speech in the Reichstag, beginning and ending with threats of violence and bloodshed as results of repressive legislation. The President of the Reichstag called Herr Hasselmann to order, saying that his speech was an incitement to rebellion. Herr Hasselmann repeated his words and was again called to order amid long and indignant protests. He uttered these words: "I am not personally in favor of revolution. I prefer pacific means; but, if we are forced to fight we shall know how to fight; and I shall be proud to lay down my life on the field of honor. Let Prince Bismarck remember the 18th of March, 1848." Herren Lowe and Benningsen denounced the purposes and methods of Socialism and defended repressive legislation.

The Reichstag finally passed the Anti-Socialist bill October 19, 1878, by a vote of two hundred and twenty-one against one hundred and forty-nine. The Conservatives and the National Liberals, with some independent Liberals, voted for the bill. Prince Bismarck then read the message closing the Reichstag. He said that the government, armed with this measure, would make a determined effort to cure the prevalent disease. If they were not able to succeed in two years and a half, the government hoped to obtain further concessions. Pursuant to the provisions of the Anti-Socialist law, the police of Berlin dissolved four Socialist clubs in that city.

In January, 1879, Prince Bismarck introduced a Parliamentary Discipline Bill into the Reichstag; but, after a long debate, the Reichstag rejected this bill. On February 19, 1879, Herr Lasker, Liberal, presented a motion in the Reichstag denying that the government could arrest members of the Reichstag under the Anti-Socialist law. Herren Lasker and Rickert spoke in support of the motion. The Minister of Justice and Federal Councilor Friedberg supported the

Anti-Socialist Measure in the Reichstag.

Herr Hasselmann's Violent Speech.

Passage of the Anti-Socialist Bill by the Reichstag.

Herr Lasker's Motion in the Reichstag.

government's interpretation of the law; but, after a long debate, Herr Lasker's motion was adopted by a large majority, only the Conservatives and the Imperialists voting against it. Several weeks later, March 10, 1879, angry words passed between Prince Bismarck and Herr Lasker in the Reichstag; and Bismarck left the Chamber several times during the day, to avoid listening to the speeches of his opponents.

**Herr
Lieb-
necht's
Speech
in the
Reich-
stag.**

One week afterward, March 17, 1879, during a debate in the Reichstag on the report of the government's action in instituting a petty state of siege in Berlin, Herr Liebnecht, a Socialist, strongly censured the measure, pronouncing it wholly unjustifiable. He declared that the Socialists were a party of reform, not of revolution. He defended the course of the Socialist Deputies in not rising from their seats when cheers were given for the Emperor. The President of the Reichstag, amid cheers, remarked that this conduct offended the moral sense of the Chamber. Herr Liebnecht continued: "If a republic is established in Germany—" He was unable to finish the sentence, in consequence of the uproar which his words provoked. The President of the Reichstag threatened to deprive him of his right of speech. Count von Eulen-berg, Minister of the Interior, declared that the state of siege in Berlin was absolutely necessary to the public safety; and the Reichstag took formal cognizance of the report concerning the state of siege.

**Bis-
marck's
Failure to
Suppress
Social-
ism.**

All of Bismarck's attempts to suppress Socialism by Anti-Socialist laws failed completely, as the cause of Socialism continued growing throughout Germany year by year. At every subsequent national election the increasing strength of the Socialist party was shown by the increasing number of popular votes cast and the increasing number of members of the Reichstag, until finally in June, 1903, the party polled over three million votes and elected over eighty members of the Reichstag.

**Encyc-
lical of
Pope Leo
XIII.**

During the fall of 1878 Socialistic attempts were made to assassinate King Alfonso of Spain and King Humbert of Italy. On January 12, 1879, Pope Leo XIII. issued an encyclical inveighing against Socialism, Communism and Nihilism, ascribing the existence of the new dogmas to the Protestant Reformation, which opened the way to skepticism in religion and to civil and social disorganization by preparing the way for freedom of thought and opinion.

**Socialism
Versus
Anarchy.**

German Socialism did not aim at a common ownership of all goods and property, as did French Communism. In the meantime the new doctrine of Anarchy, the very opposite of Socialism, as it aimed at the extinction of all government, law and authority, arose in all European countries.

30 25 20 West 15 10 5 0 5 10 15

MAP OF EUROPE

SINCE TREATY OF BERLIN (A.D. 1878)

By I.S. Clare.

SCALE OF MILES

0 25 50 100 200 300 400 500





SECTION XVII.—NIHILISM IN RUSSIA (A. D. 1878-1884).

WHILE Socialism was growing in Germany, a far more radical and revolutionary doctrine, called Nihilism, was making rapid progress in Russia among all classes of the population, even among the aristocracy and the army, as well as among the peasant class. In April, 1878, Nihilist outbreaks were feared at Moscow and Kiev, and troops were sent to strengthen the garrisons at those places. About this time, in April, 1878, a young maiden, named Vera Sassulitch, attempted to assassinate General Trepoff, Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, in revenge for his cruel flogging of a Nihilist. She was tried for this attempt; and, notwithstanding her known guilt, she was acquitted by the jury. The government, unwilling to abide by the verdict, declared that in future such cases should not be tried by jury. The Public Prosecutor appealed from the verdict; and the Supreme Court of St. Petersburg declared the trial null and void, on the ground of informality of procedure, and ordered that a new trial take place at Novgorod; but in the meantime Vera Sassulitch had escaped. After her acquittal the police attempted to rearrest her, but were frustrated by a crowd; and a riot ensued. The maiden was seized by the police, disguised as a medical student, and was to be transported to Siberia; but, by bribing the police, she succeeded in making her escape, in the disguise of a sister of Charity, and found her way to Geneva, in Switzerland, where a supper was given in her honor by a number of Russian and other exiles. In a speech before these exiles she said that she had given herself, body and soul, to the cause of revolution, and that, in her opinion, its triumph was not far distant. The Russian people, she said, were fast becoming undeceived; the blood that had been spilled in the late Russo-Turkish War was the last that would be shed in combats incited by the ambition of princes; the next struggle would be that of the people against kings. The other speeches at the supper were of a violent character. The authorities at Geneva, uneasy at Vera Sassulitch's presence, compelled her to leave Switzerland; whereupon she went to Paris.

In the meantime Baron Heyking, Prefect of Police at Kiev, was stabbed to death, while walking in the streets of that city; and the assassin succeeded in making his escape, shooting one of his pursuers. Baron Heyking had made himself hated on account of his severity—secret whippings of Nihilists for imprudent language being frequent at Kiev. On August 16, 1878, General Mezentzoff, the successor of General Trepoff as Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, was fatally stabbed in a public square in that city, dying shortly afterward.

Nihilism.

**Vera
Sassu-
litch's
Bold
Attempt,
Trial and
Escape.**

**Assassin-
ations of
Baron
Heyking
and
General
Mezent-
zoff.**

Upon committing their bloody deed, the assassins, brandishing their weapons, jumped into a conveyance and escaped. The assassination of General Mezentzoff caused intense excitement in the Russian capital. It was supposed that the act was committed in revenge for the execution of Hoedel at Berlin, which occurred on the same day. It was known that there was a bond of sympathy between the Communists of France, the Socialists of Germany and the Nihilists of Russia. On August 27, 1878, a Russian imperial ukase was issued at St. Petersburg, temporarily remitting crimes against the state and attacks upon officials to court-martial.

**Revolu-
tionary
Conduct
of
Russian
Students.**

In December, 1878, a mysterious struggle occurred between the Russian government and the students of St. Petersburg, Kiev and Kharkoff. On December 12th several hundred students assembled before the Czarewitch's palace to present a petition. The Czarewitch being absent, Selo, the Prefect of Police at St. Petersburg, received the petition and ordered the crowd to disperse, saying that it was illegal to present a petition in such a manner. The students refusing to disperse, half a squadron of gendarmes were summoned, and one hundred and forty-two students were arrested and lodged in the barracks of the Moscow regiment. On December 14th the *Agence Russe* announced that, in consequence of illegal demonstrations by the students, the authorities had adopted certain measures for securing public order. The students were agitating for the liberation of their colleagues arrested at Kharkoff, in connection with recent demonstrations caused by the introduction of an obnoxious regulation in reference to their studies. The agitation continued. On December 16th a meeting was held to protest against the violence of the soldiery. The students complained that the Prefect of Police had promised to bring an answer to the petition calling attention to oppression of the students and requesting the liberation of their colleagues arrested at Kharkoff. Instead of any reply being given to the petition, the St. Petersburg colleges were surrounded by two thousand gendarmes and Cossacks, and two hundred arrests were made. The Cossacks used whips, and several students were injured. The drawbridge over the river Neva was removed, to prevent a thousand students from crossing to the south side. The lecture halls were closed; and meetings within the universities, as well as outside, were forbidden. The police were ordered to act within the universities, if requested to do so by the rectors. A proclamation was conspicuously posted, forbidding the carrying of arms in the St. Petersburg district, except by authorization. On December 30, 1878, a riot took place at Kiev, caused by the resistance of the students of the university at that place. The students, in a meeting held outside of the town, had decided to protest against the closing of the university.

A body of armed men accordingly proceeded to the university, and forced their way in, after disarming the city police. They then fixed on a blackboard an energetic protest against the arbitrary proceedings of the authorities. Two companies of local militia tried to disperse the students, who resisted; whereupon a riot ensued, in which many persons were killed on both sides. A cavalry force succeeded in clearing the streets in front of the university, and many students were arrested. Similar riots, though on a smaller scale, occurred in other Russian towns.

Orders were also sent to the Russian police at the western frontier of Russia to redouble their vigilance, in order to stop the smuggling of revolutionary pamphlets into the country, a practice which had been going on on a large scale, and to prevent the entrance into Russia of revolutionary emissaries from Germany. Late in February, 1879, a serious riot occurred at Kiev, caused by the attempt of the police to close a secret Nihilist printing establishment.

On the morning of April 14, 1879, as the Czar Alexander II. was walking near his palace in St. Petersburg, four shots were fired at him by a young schoolmaster named Alexander Solovieff, twenty-three years of age. The would-be-assassin fired at persons who attempted to arrest him, wounding a detective; but he was finally captured. The great throng of people which quickly assembled enthusiastically cheered and congratulated the Emperor, who thanked them for their fidelity on so painful an occasion. The Emperor then drove to the palace without escort; after which he drove, without escort, to the Kazan Cathedral, to return thanks for the preservation of his life. While receiving the congratulations of his officials at noon, the Czar was so overcome with emotion that he was unable to speak for some minutes. On recovering he exclaimed: "This is the third time that God has saved me!" All the European sovereigns, including the Sultan of Turkey, telegraphed their congratulations to the Czar upon his escape. Solovieff was tried, convicted, and finally hanged early in June.

In consequence of this attempted regicide, the Czar of Russia adopted the most vigorous and despotic repressive measures. He proclaimed martial law in six great centers of Russian population, including the cities of Moscow, Kiev, Warsaw, Kharkoff, Odessa and St. Petersburg. Replying to a congratulatory address of the marshal of the nobility, the Czar said that he had been forced to adopt rigorous measures by the audacity of the revolutionists. Circulars were sent to the governors of all the Russian provinces, directing them to execute the orders of the newly-appointed Governors-General. It was determined to send twelve hundred Nihilist prisoners from Novgorod to Siberia.

**Efforts
of the
Russian
Author-
ities.**

**Solovi-
eff's
Attempt
to Assas-
sinate
Czar
Alexander
II.**

**Martial
Law in
Russia.**

In St. Petersburg one house after another was searched, and every person whose passport was irregular was arrested. Porters to guard the doors of houses and prevent the posting of placards, as required by General Gourko's order, could not be found; as the Nihilists threatened with death all who undertook the service. In St. Petersburg the police arrested people by batches at all hours of the day. On the slightest suspicion, whole families were arrested; and a large number of lodging-house keepers were imprisoned for not reporting, within twenty-four hours, their latest arrivals. There were few pedestrians or carriages in the streets; but an endless line of porters were seated on stools at every door, with stout sticks. Covered prison-vans frequently passed with a police officer mounted beside the driver; and General Gourko drove around in an open drosky, escorted by Cossacks, cracking their whips. On July 20, 1879, General Gourko issued an order that premises on which presses for printing revolutionary pamphlets were found be closed by the authorities, even if the proprietors were in no way connected with the illegal proceedings which had been carried on therein.

**Reign of
Terror in
Russia.**

A Reign of Terror prevailed throughout the Russian Empire. In St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Kharkoff, Odessa, Archangel and other large Russian cities Nihilist outrages occurred. Military and police officials who caused Nihilists to be put to death, exiled or imprisoned were cruelly tortured or assassinated, in accordance with the decrees of secret Nihilist tribunals. The revolutionary movement was gradually growing more formidable. Among the Nihilists were many of the Russian nobility and aristocracy and many civil and military officials, and the female sex was as active and enthusiastic in the revolutionary movement as the male. Rigorous government officials seldom escaped assassination, while Nihilist assassins were seldom discovered. Nihilists were arrested by hundreds and thrown into prison, where they were starved to death; while large numbers were exiled to Siberia.

**Attempt
to Blow
up the
Czar's
Train.**

On the night of December 1, 1879, an unsuccessful attempt was made on the life of the Czar Alexander II. by blowing up the train in which the Czar was traveling from St. Petersburg on his way to visit Moscow. The Emperor's train reached Moscow in safety; but while the next train, which was supposed to convey the Emperor, was approaching Moscow a frightful explosion occurred, blowing a luggage-van to pieces and throwing seven carriages from the railway track, but nobody was injured. A mine of dynamite had been laid under the track to blow up the imperial train, and the Czar's escape was owing to the fact that his train had arrived half an hour earlier than the time announced. On the following day a deputation proceeded to the Kremlin to congratulate His Majesty upon his visit to Moscow. At

noon on the same day the Emperor appeared in St. George's Hall, and was presented by the municipal authorities with bread and salt; whereupon he made a speech, thanking the people for their loyal attachment to their sovereign. The Czar's words were loudly cheered. There were great rejoicings in Moscow and St. Petersburg upon the Emperor's escape. When the Czar returned to St. Petersburg, on December 4, 1879, he was cheered enthusiastically by great crowds in the streets.

Numerous arrests were again made in St. Petersburg, and great excitement prevailed in the city. The gendarme and police forces were largely augmented, and they incessantly patrolled the streets, while great precautions were also taken to guard the Winter Palace. General Gourko, Governor-General of St. Petersburg, ordered every householder to display a red lamp before his door nightly, containing the number of the house. Nihilists were also arrested, tried, convicted and hanged at Odessa, Kiev and other cities.

The Nihilists were as active as ever. On the day of the Czar's return to St. Petersburg the Revolutionary Committee issued a most violent proclamation, which was distributed daily and in which they avowed that the late attempt on the Czar's life was made by their order and that the attempt would be made again. The Revolutionary journal, *The Will of the People*, was distributed in St. Petersburg and in other parts of Russia.

The Russian government, in its desperate efforts to crush out the Nihilists, had exhausted all the available resources at its command. The police force and gendarmes had been largely increased; new and stringent regulations had been enforced concerning passports and the sale or possession of arms, gunpowder or explosive materials; the civil laws had been suspended and martial law proclaimed; and shooting and wholesale banishment had been resorted to—all without any effective result. The Czar now applied spiritual weapons against the Nihilists, and the clergy throughout the Russian Empire were instructed to curse and anathematize the revolutionists. In pursuance of orders from the Czar, the Russian Synod issued an ecclesiastical manifesto to be read in the Russian churches, consigning the revolutionary party to eternal punishment and declaring it to be the sacred duty of all Russian subjects to obey the behests of the Lord's anointed.

On the evening of February 17, 1880, an abortive attempt was made to kill the Russian imperial family by laying a mine of dynamite in the Winter Palace. The mine was laid under the guard-room of the Winter Palace, which is immediately under the dining-hall. Owing to accidental delay, the imperial family had not entered the dining-hall at the usual time. The explosion made a hole in the floor of the

**Vigilance
of the
St. Pe-
tersburg
Author-
ities.**

**Nihilist
Activity.**

**Civil and
Spiritual
Warfare
against
Nihilism.**

**Explosion
in the
Czar's
Winter
Palace.**

dining-hall fifteen feet long and twelve feet wide. The explosion occurred at the usual dinner hour of the imperial family, and had the family not been delayed they would have perished. Nine soldiers were killed and forty-five wounded. The Governor-General and police authorities of St. Petersburg received notices from a Nihilist committee, informing them that they need not trouble themselves about making arrangements for an illumination on the occasion of the Czar's anniversary, as the revolutionists were preparing for such an illumination as had not been seen since Nero burned Rome.

**General
Loris
Melikoff,
Dictator.**

On February 25, 1880, the Czar Alexander II. issued an imperial ukase appointing General Loris Melikoff virtual Dictator of Russia and conferring upon him the most despotic powers. Melikoff was made the Head of a Supreme Executive Commission for the maintenance of law and order. The Head of the Commission had direct control over all political trials in the Russian Empire. All local authorities, Governors-General and town commandants were placed under the jurisdiction of the Head of the Commission. The Head of the Commission was at liberty to adopt any measures he deemed necessary for the preservation of order in the Empire, and his orders were to be obeyed implicitly. The office of Provisional Governor of St. Petersburg was abolished. Upon assuming office General Melikoff issued a proclamation announcing his intention to adopt the most stringent measures for the preservation of order and the punishment of criminals. The appointment of General Melikoff as virtual Dictator of Russia created a good impression in St. Petersburg; as he was known to be mild, liberal and conciliatory, as well as an efficient executive. Melikoff's favorite maxim was that "power does not lie in force, but in love."

**The
Czar's
Twenty-
fifth
Anniver-
sary.**

On March 2, 1880, there was a most magnificent celebration in St. Petersburg of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Czar's accession to the Russian throne. The city was gayly decorated, and the day was observed as a general holiday. The most impressive ceremonies were performed, amid great popular rejoicings and enthusiastic cheering by the vast multitudes in the streets. There were also fêtes and festivities in all the great cities of the Russian Empire.

**Attempt
to Assass-
sinate
General
Melikoff.**

On March 3, 1880, General Loris Melikoff, the Head of the Supreme Executive Commission, was fired at by a young man with a revolver, as he was alighting from a carriage at his residence. General Melikoff was not hurt. The would-be-assassin attempted to fire a second shot before he was seized, but was prevented by a blow from General Melikoff. The would-be-assassin, who was a young Jew from Minsk, named Vladetsky, was tried and condemned by a court-martial the next day, March 4, 1880, and hanged the day after, March 5, 1880. The

culprit was defiant, and said at his trial that General Melikoff would be killed by somebody.

General Melikoff adopted a mild and conciliatory policy and inaugurated wise reforms. Many political prisoners were liberated; expelled students were readmitted to the universities; many persons were freed from police surveillance; the infamous Third Section was abolished; the system of wholesale arrests was abandoned, and the press was allowed greater freedom.

**Meli-
koff's
Concilia-
tory
Policy.**

Notwithstanding General Melikoff's conciliatory policy, Nihilist criminals were rigorously punished. The Nihilists who were implicated in the attempts on the Czar's life were hanged, and about ten thousand out of twelve thousand Nihilist prisoners in the Moscow prison were banished to Siberia. Stringent rules were adopted for the Russian universities; the students being forbidden to belong to societies of any kind, hold meetings, complain or orally disapprove of existing regulations, give private lessons or have their lectures printed. The political prisoners at Kiev were shot down while attempting to escape. Incendiary fires broke out in every great Russian city during the spring and summer of 1880. The Empress Marie Alexandrovna, of Russia, died June 3, 1880; and on July 31, 1880, the Czar married the Princess Dolgorouki.

**Banish-
ment of
Nihilists.**

At two o'clock p. m., Sunday, March 13, 1881, while the Czar Alexander II. was returning from a military review at the Michael Palace, at St. Petersburg, a nitro-glycerine glass bomb thrown at his carriage exploded, smashing the whole back of the vehicle, whereupon the Czar jumped from the carriage to attend to the wounded of his escort. A second bomb thrown at the Emperor's feet exploded, nearly tearing off the right leg and badly shattering the left, crushing his right hand, breaking his marriage ring and driving it into the flesh, tearing his left eye from the socket and making a deep gash in his abdomen. The wounded Emperor was conveyed in an unconscious condition in a sleigh to the Winter Palace, where he died in a few hours, after suffering intense agony. The imperial family surrounded the Emperor's deathbed. The excitement in St. Petersburg was indescribable. The streets were thronged, and the most intense indignation against the assassins and the most profound sympathy for the imperial family were manifested. The soldiers, who loved the Czar, were furious in their rage against the assassins. The city was shrouded in mourning, and the church bells tolled. One of the assassins who threw the bombs—Nicolai Russakoff—was immediately arrested. The assassins were students disguised as peasants. Intelligence of the dreadful event was immediately telegraphed to all foreign courts and to every part of the Russian Empire. The Czar's as-

**Assassin-
ation of
Czar
Alexander
II.**

sassination produced a profound feeling of grief and horror throughout the whole civilized world, and all the governments of Europe and that of the United States telegraphed their condolences to the Russian imperial family and the Russian people. The press of Europe and America were almost unanimous in their condemnation of the horrible deed. The news of the Czar's assassination was a terrible shock to his uncle, the venerable Emperor William I. of Germany. Queen Victoria became ill from grief. The different courts of Europe went in mourning for specified periods. Mr. Gladstone and Sir Stafford Northcote paid handsome eulogies to the dead Czar in the British House of Commons; and both Houses of Parliament unanimously adopted addresses to the queen, expressing their sentiments on the assassination.

Accession
of Czar
Alexander
III.

On the day following the assassination, March 14, 1881, the late Emperor's son was proclaimed Emperor with the title of ALEXANDER III.; and immediately upon his accession he issued a manifesto to the Russian people. The imperial family, the court officials and the troops immediately swore allegiance to the new Emperor. When all the officers of the guards, civil officials and court dignitaries met at the Winter Palace to take the oath of allegiance the new Emperor and Empress and the imperial family issued from the cabinet where the dead Czar's body lay. In passing through St. George's Hall, on the way to the chapel, the new Emperor stopped before the Guard of Honor and said with emotion: "I should not like my son to ascend the throne under such circumstances as these!"

Tribut-
of
Respect
to the
Dead
Czar.

The dead Emperor's body was embalmed March 15th and lay in state in the chapel of the palace for fifteen days, all classes being permitted to view the remains. While the procession conveyed the remains to the church of the palace the people in the halls knelt. On the arrival of the cortege at the church, mass for the dead was celebrated. The regalia was brought from Moscow and conveyed through the streets in state. It was decided to erect a church on the spot where the Czar's assassination occurred. Cypress-trees were planted around the spot where the Czar fell, and sacred pictures with lamps burning before them were planted there. The students of the St. Petersburg and Moscow universities voted a silver wreath to be placed upon the murdered Czar's tomb. On Sunday, March 27, 1881—two weeks after the assassination—the remains of the Emperor Alexander II. were deposited in the imperial vault in the church of the Petropaulovsky fortress, amid salvos of artillery. The church was densely crowded, and the catafalque was strewn with flowers and wreaths.

His
Funeral
Obse-
quies

Nihilist
Procla-
mation.

A dynamite mine was discovered near the Annitchkoff palace, the residence of the new Czar. A revolutionary proclamation was dis-

covered at Russakoff's domicile, declaring that the Nihilists would continue their work and warning the new Emperor to beware of his father's fate. The Nihilist journal, *The Will of the People*, published a communication from the Nihilist Executive Committee, announcing that the sentence imposed upon Alexander II. by the Committee, August 26, 1879, had been executed March 13, 1881, after two years of effort and heavy sacrifices, and telling Alexander III. what punishment follows the crime of violating the national will. One night, as Alexander III. retired to rest, he discovered under his pillow a written communication from the Nihilist Executive Committee, threatening him with the same tragic fate as his father if he did not grant representative government and a liberal constitution within six weeks from his accession.

At the beginning of April, 1881, measures were adopted by a Council of Twenty-five at St. Petersburg for keeping the movements of citizens under surveillance. The police were empowered to examine passengers on leaving railway stations, and cabmen were obliged to give the police a ticket and were forbidden to drive elsewhere than to the address given on their engagement. All householders were requested to be at home to receive the police inspectors in the two hundred and twenty-eight district of the city and write down their votes; but instead of the streets being deserted, as they should have been, they were more thronged than ever. Barriers were erected on all roads leading to St. Petersburg, to enable a record to be kept of all persons traveling to the city. An order was issued prohibiting the importation of easily-inflammable substances. A military cordon surrounded St. Petersburg, and nobody was allowed to enter or leave the city. The new Council of Twenty-five invested the city with a chain of Cossack patrols and with posts of officers and police on all roads, so that ingress and egress of people were not allowed until subjected to strict investigation by the commanders of the posts. No special passports were permitted. Other measures were adopted as precautions for the new Emperor's safety.

The preliminary investigation into the Czar's assassination resulted in arraigning the following persons as the Czar's regicides: Nicolai Russakoff, who confessed to throwing one of the bombs; Michaeloff; Jeliaboff; Kibaltschitsch, who confessed to making the bombs; and the two women, Hessa Helfmann and Sophie Pieoffsky, the latter of whom was of noble birth and highly educated and gave the signal for throwing the bombs.

The trial of the Nihilist assassins began April 7, 1881. Sophie Pieoffsky and Jeliaboff confessed their guilt, boldly declaring that they actively participated in the preparation of the two mines and in the Czar's assassination. After a trial of three days all the Nihilist prison-

Precautions
for the
New
Czar's
Safety.

The
Dead
Czar's
Assas-
sins.

Their
Trial
and Exe-
cution.

ers charged with the assassination—Russakoff, Michaeloff, Jeliaboff, Kibaltschitsch, Sophie Picoffsky and Hessay Helfmann—were convicted and condemned to death, April 10, 1881; and all, except Hessay Helfmann, were hanged April 15, 1881, in the presence of a vast multitude of spectators. Hessay Helfmann's execution was deferred, and her sentence was finally commuted to imprisonment for life. The Nihilist Committee issued a manifesto, April 17, 1881, extolling the Nihilist regicides as martyrs, condemning the hanging of a woman and warning the Czar of the disastrous consequences of a reactionary policy.

The New Czar's Manifesto.
On May 11, 1881, the Czar Alexander III. issued a manifesto, reminding his subjects of the glorious government of his father and the great reforms he accomplished. He appealed to all faithful subjects to serve him and the state faithfully and sincerely, "in order to extirpate the horribly-rebellious spirit which covers Russia with shame."

General Ignatieff's Circular.
On May 16, 1881, the Emperor accepted General Loris Melikoff's resignation and appointed General Ignatieff to succeed him as Minister of the Interior. Two days later, May 18, 1881, General Ignatieff issued a circular to the governors of the provinces, explaining the principles of the imperial manifesto and assuring the peasantry that the government will maintain their rights and relieve the people as much as possible from the burden of taxation in order to improve their material condition.

Nihilist Reply to the Czar's Manifesto.
The Revolutionary Committee answered the Czar's manifesto, dwelling on the wretchedness of the peasants, the banishments to Siberia, the gagging of free speech and public journals, and declaring that false counselors were in possession of the Czar's ear. The document concluded as follows: "Let Your Majesty assemble your people around you and listen to their wishes in an unprejudicial spirit, and then neither Your Majesty nor the state will have any reason to apprehend serious consequences."

Revolutionary Condition of Russia.
On Easter day revolutionary proclamations from the *Land and Liberty* party were found inclosed in Easter eggs distributed in the streets of Moscow, urging the peasants to seize lands and refuse to pay taxes or serve in the army. The Czar Alexander III. and his favorite counselors were disposed to adopt the most rigorous repressive measures, having no example in Russian history. Russia was in a revolutionary condition. From the White Sea to the Black Sea, from the Baltic to the Amoor, the peasants were waking from the dream of centuries, with a dangerous knowledge of their rights and wrongs, eager to listen to the counsels of revolutionary propagandists. It was evident that the reforms which the Nihilists endeavored to wring from the government by deeds of bloodshed must not long be delayed. Meanwhile the Emperor lived in retirement, as a virtual prisoner at his palace of Gats-

china, surrounded by six cordons of police; while his implacable enemies were dangerously busy. Numerous Nihilist warnings were sent to the Czar, while the St. Petersburg police were actively searching for dynamite mines. The social and political atmosphere of St. Petersburg was growing thicker and thicker and was fraught with omens of an approaching storm. St. Petersburg was like a gloomy prison-house, where little was heard of the outside world, and everybody lived in a constant state of painful suspense. The chief journals still appeared with mourning borders. Over twelve thousand convicts were banished to Siberia in May, 1881.

The Czar's palace at Gatschina was filled with police and soldiers. All persons having business at the palace were subjected to a rigorous search whenever they had occasion to go there. In consequence of the reign of terror throughout Russia, the coronation of Alexander III. was postponed. Mistrust pervaded all classes, even the army; and many officers were arrested, including a colonel of the Imperial Guard. Great and increasing uneasiness prevailed in official circles. Many naval officers were arrested for being concerned in a secret plot to assassinate the Czar. Officers and civilians were arrested, of whose loyalty hitherto no suspicion had been entertained.

Early in June, 1881, a dynamite mine was discovered under the metals close to the Gatschina railway station, connected with a battery in the railway telegraph office; and all the telegraph officials were arrested. On June 19, 1881, two rubber bags filled with one hundred and fifty pounds of dynamite were discovered under a bridge over the Catharine Canal; the bags measuring twenty-one inches in diameter and being provided with fuses. Late in July, 1881, a plot to assassinate the Czar was discovered and frustrated by the police; sixty persons, some of high rank, being concerned in the plot. The Czar Alexander III. and his family visited Moscow, July 30, 1881, and were cheered enthusiastically by the inhabitants, to whom the Czar made a short address, cordially thanking the people of Moscow for their hearty reception.

Early in October, 1881, twenty pupils of the Constantine Military School were arrested in St. Petersburg. Many Nihilist proclamations were found on them. The Russian authorities, in consequence, adopted the severest measures. Markets and fairs were prohibited whenever there was the least suspicion that the Nihilists intended to use such gatherings for their own purposes. Late in November, 1881, the St. Petersburg police were ordered to search suspicious places, in consequence of the discovery of seditious proclamations in the military schools of St. Petersburg. On November 26, 1881, a youth, obtaining admission to the Ministry of the Interior, fired off a revolver at General

**Alarm
of Czar
Alexander
III.**

**Plots
to Kill
Him.**

**Nihilist
Activity.**

Tcherevine; but the ball missed its aim. The general secured and disarmed the youth, who was afterward tried, condemned and hanged.

**New
Plots
to Kill
Czar
Alexander
III.**

Late in November, 1881, another unsuccessful attempt was made to assassinate the Czar Alexander III. A balloon was to ascend near Gatschina, carrying a quantity of dynamite and explosive fire-balls, together with appliances to cause the balloon to fall within the palace-yard, when it would explode and set the place on fire. In the confusion it was intended to seize the Czar and his family. In consequence of the plot, he decided to remove from Gatschina at once. The Russian police made many arrests in St. Petersburg, Kharkoff and Tchernigov. Among the prisoners were a Chief of Police of an important Russian city, two daughters of high state officials, two Jewish merchants and a number of students and active Nihilists. Another mine assassination plot was discovered at the Russian imperial palace at Gatschina, December 19, 1881; and several officers and two hundred other persons were arrested in consequence. A few days later a plot was discovered for the Czar's assassination in Karavanian street, on his way to the Michael Riding School, during the fête of St. George. The conspirators were all arrested at a Nihilist meeting in the suburbs of St. Petersburg. The naval port of Cronstadt was burned by Nihilists late in December, 1881. Numerous arrests were made in St. Petersburg at the beginning of January, 1882. The police seized a secret printing-press. As the Nihilists were assembling in St. Petersburg and reviving the circulation of their proclamations, it was thought that they were preparing for fresh violence. A Holy League, formed to counteract Nihilism, was officially recognized as a branch of the Russian police.

**Great
Trial of
Nihilists.**

The great trial of twenty-one Nihilists, charged with robbery, assassination and attempted assassination, began February 14, 1882. All the prisoners pleaded guilty, after a trial of nine days. Ten were sentenced to death. The remaining eleven were sentenced to various terms of penal servitude. On March 3, 1882, the Czar commuted the death sentences of all but one of the condemned Nihilists to hard labor in the mines for an indefinite period. The one excepted was Lieutenant Nicholas Sukhanoff, of the Russian navy, who was shot dead at Cronstadt by order of the Czar, March 31, 1882.

**Continued
Arrests of
Nihilists.**

Numerous arrests of Nihilists were made at Odessa early in March, 1882; and a secret printing-press, with copies of a Nihilist proclamation, were seized by the police. The Russian customs-officers discovered hats containing dynamite in cases remaining unclaimed. The Czar Alexander III. visited the tomb of his father, Alexander II., on March 13, 1882, the anniversary of the latter's assassination. The Nihilist organ, *The Will of the People*, urged the Nihilists to con-

tinue their plots, notwithstanding the reprisals of the government. The Chief of the Nihilist Executive Committee was arrested in St. Petersburg for complicity in the Little Garden street mine.

General Strelnikoff, Public Prosecutor of the Kiev Military Tribunal, was shot and instantly killed at Odessa, March 31, 1882. Two assassins were stopped while fleeing from the scene in a carriage. They violently resisted arrest and with their revolvers and poniards wounded three persons, but finally they were overpowered and taken to a police station. A third assassin escaped. The prisoners were tried and condemned to death by a military court, April 1, 1882. A large concourse of people attended the funeral of General Strelnikoff, who was buried with full military honors.

Assassination of General Strelnikoff.

In order to appease the Russian people, the Czar decided to grant reforms. Two commissions were to be appointed to consider questions of central institutions and the share in the administration to be given to the people. A commission was already examining local institutions. General Loris Melikoff was the supreme head of the three commissions. The Czar postponed his coronation, in consequence of Nihilist plots for his assassination in Moscow on that occasion. General Ignatieff was succeeded as Minister of the Interior by Count Tolstoi, June 12, 1882.

The Czar's Proposed Reforms.

Fresh arrests were made at St. Petersburg early in July, 1882, among whom were two Uhlan officers whose duty specially was to protect the Czar. These officers were distributing revolutionary proclamations. Count Tolstoi was threatened and was constantly guarded. Additional precautions were taken at the Peterhoff palace. An imprisoned Nihilist disclosed a long list of newly-planned plots against the Emperor. In consequence of this revelation the prisoners were better treated. At the close of army maneuvers at Ishora a bridge constructed by the military across a ravine fell directly after the Emperor and Empress had passed over it, September 4, 1882.

Continued Plots and Arrests.

The Emperor Alexander III. and his Empress were crowned at Moscow with the most imposing ceremonies, May 31, 1883. The Nihilists continued their outrages; and thousands of them were arrested and exiled to Siberia during 1883, in consequence of their numerous assassinations and dynamite plots. In January, 1884, the Czar Alexander III. was shot at and slightly wounded. The Nihilists have continued their plots and assassinations ever since, and repeated attempts have been made on the Emperor's life; so that Nihilism has come to be chronic. Nihilists are continually arrested, tried, and put to death or exiled to Siberia; but their operations have become more widespread with the progress of time, and the Czardom is unable to suppress Nihilism or even to check its destructive course.

Coronation of Czar Alexander III.

Chronic Nihilism.

SECTION XVIII.—GREAT BRITAIN TO 1908.

**Lord
Beacons-
field's
Diplo-
macy.**

As we have seen, Lord Beaconsfield had greatly raised Britain prestige by his triumph in the Congress of Berlin and by his astute diplomacy during the crisis in the Eastern question, in which he balked many of the ambitious schemes of Russia.

**Anglo-
Afghan
War of
1878-79.**

The conduct of Shere Ali, the Ameer of Afghanistan, in receiving a Russian embassy, in September, 1878, and his refusal to receive a British embassy, involved him in a war with Great Britain; and after his refusal to answer Great Britain's ultimatum, in November, 1878, three Anglo-Indian armies, numbering together thirty-four thousand men, with one hundred and fifty cannon, invaded Afghanistan. The army under General Browne consisted of sixteen thousand men, with sixty-six cannon. The army under General Roberts numbered six thousand men and had twenty-four pieces of cannon. The army under General Biddulph was twelve thousand strong and had sixty cannon. The Russian General Kaufmann's memorandum concerning the menace to Russian dominion in Turkestan from the Anglo-Indian invasion of Afghanistan led to a diplomatic campaign between Great Britain and Russia, and the Russian government asked guarantees from Great Britain. The British army under General Browne forced the Afghans to evacuate Fort Ali Musjid, in the Khyber Pass, after a fierce bombardment, November 22, 1878. General Browne was joined by many Afghan tribes, who tendered their submission. Dacca was evacuated by its Afghan garrison and occupied by General Browne's troops, while General Appleyard dispersed an Afghan force in the Khyber Pass, November 30, 1878. General Roberts took Peiwar Khotal by storm, December 2, 1878; Major Anderson being killed on the British side. Jelalabad, having been evacuated by its Afghan garrison, was occupied by General Browne, December 20, 1878. The Afghan Ameer Shere Ali fled to Balkh, the ancient Bactra, in Turkestan, with the retiring Russian embassy. General Roberts defeated the Afghans in the Khyber Pass, January 7, 1879; and Generals Stewart and Biddulph marched through Candahar, January 8, 1879. In March, 1879, the Afghans were repulsed in attacks upon Generals Stewart's and Biddulph's rear-guards. Shere Ali, the fleeing Ameer of Afghanistan, finally entered Russian territory in January, 1879; and his followers were disarmed by the Russian authorities. Shere Ali died February 21, 1879, and was succeeded by his son Yakooob Khan, who made peace with the British, ceding to them the Khyber and Kojuk Passes and allowing a British resident at Candahar.

In the summer of 1877 the British dominion in Southern Africa had been enlarged by the annexation of the Transvaal Republic, which had been founded by Dutch settlers from the Cape Colony. The President of the Transvaal Republic had offended the Zulus, a warlike tribe of negroes; and the Dutch settlers, or Boers, had been defeated. The Zulus threatened to invade the Transvaal, expel the Dutch and attack the British colonies in Natal. In order to avoid a general war in Southern Africa, the British government proposed a confederate union with the Transvaal. The Boers accepted the terms; the British flag was hoisted at Pretoria, the Transvaal capital; and Sir Theophilus Shepstone, the British governor of the Cape Colony, proclaimed the annexation of the Transvaal to the British dominions. But this did not relieve the British in Southern Africa from the threatened attack by the Zulus.

**British
Annexa-
tion
of the
Trans-
vaal.**

In July, 1878, Lord Chelmsford found the situation so alarming that he asked for reinforcements from England. These were sent; and in December, 1878, Lord Chelmsford had ten thousand British troops and native auxiliaries. Cetywayo, the Zulu king, had assembled forty thousand men to oppose the British. Cetywayo indignantly rejected the British ultimatum for the disarmament and disbandment of the Zulu army and the stationing of a British resident in Zululand. The British then invaded Zululand. A small British force was cut to pieces by twenty thousand Zulus under Cetywayo at Isandula, January 29, 1879. This disaster produced consternation in the Cape Colony and excitement in England; and Sir Bartle Frere, the British governor of Natal, sent appeals to England and the Mauritius for reinforcements. Seven thousand troops were sent to South Africa from England to Lord Chelmsford's aid, and troops were also ordered from British India and St. Helena. The British House of Commons voted a supplementary credit of one and a half million pounds sterling for the Zulu war, February 27, 1879. In January, February and March, 1879, the Zulus were repulsed in their attacks on Colonel Wood and Colonel Pearson. Colonel Pearson with twelve hundred men was besieged by thirty-five thousand Zulus at Ekowe; but Lord Chelmsford defeated Cetywayo at Gingelova and relieved Colonel Pearson at Ekowe the next day, April 4, 1879. Cetywayo's overtures for peace were rejected by Lord Chelmsford, who demanded the disbandment of the Zulu army and the stationing of a British resident in Zululand. On June 2, 1879, Prince Louis Napoleon, son of Napoleon III., was surprised and killed by a body of Zulus while reconnoitering with a party of British officers. Sir Garnet Wolseley succeeded Lord Chelmsford as British commander-in-chief in South Africa. Lord Chelmsford with five thousand men defeated and dispersed Cetywayo's army of twenty

**British
War
with the
Zulus.**

thousand men at Ulundi, July 4, 1879; and Cetywayo became a fugitive. The House of Commons voted a credit of three million pounds for the Zulu war. Sir Garnet Wolseley proclaimed Cetywayo's dethronement; and Cetywayo was finally captured by British cavalry, August 28, 1879. All the other Zulu chiefs submitted, and the Zulu war ended.

Renewal
of the
Anglo-
Afghan
War of
1879.

On September 3, 1879, several Afghan regiments revolted at Cabul and were joined by the populace. After the Ameer's arsenal and stores had been plundered and destroyed, the British embassy was attacked by four thousand mutineers and set on fire. The mutineers stoned and then cannonaded the embassy, which fired several volleys in return. The British force defending the embassy, numbering but seventy-nine persons, fought with the most determined valor. After the buildings had been fired, the surviving members of the embassy sallied out and defended themselves desperately, but were all killed, including Major Cavagnari and Lieutenant Hamilton. Intense excitement prevailed in British India. The Ameer Yakoo Khan declared that he was utterly surprised by the outbreak and endeavored to quell it. The mutineers called upon the Afghan tribes to rise in arms against the British. The British authorities in India took prompt measures to restore order in Afghanistan. General Roberts pushed on to Cabul, and the British forces in the Khyber Pass were strongly reinforced. Although Yakoo Khan protested his fidelity to the British cause, there were evidences of his treachery. The British camp at the Shutargardan Pass repulsed an Afghan attack, October 2, 1879. The British under General Roberts routed the Afghans near Cabul, October 6 and 12, 1879, and then entered Cabul, accompanied by the Ameer Yakoo Khan and his suite. The British occupied the Bala-Hissar and captured about one hundred and forty cannon. During October, 1879, the British repulsed many Afghan assaults at the Shutargardan Pass and at other places. Yakoo Khan abdicated October 29, 1879, and eighty Afghans were hanged for complicity in the massacre of the British embassy. The British obtained proofs of Yakoo Khan's treachery and his connivance at the massacre of the British embassy. Generals Macpherson and Massey failed in their combined movements in December, 1879, during which there was daily fighting around Shirpur and Cabul, where General Roberts with seven thousand British Indian troops was surrounded by thirty thousand Afghans. Generals Bright and Gough marched to the relief of General Roberts and repulsed some Afghan attacks. On December 23, 1879, General Roberts defeated and dispersed the Afghans around Cabul with heavy loss, and the next day he reoccupied the Bala-Hissar and Cabul. General Gough joined General Roberts after the Afghan

defeat. The British supported Abdur Rahman Khan, the pretender to the Afghan throne; and one party in Afghanistan supported Moosa Khan, the son of the ex-Ameer Yakoob Khan, who was received into the fortress of Ghiznee. Moosa Khan was in the hands of Moham-med Jan, a military adventurer. Early in 1880 Afghanistan was torn by civil war.

A famine in Ireland in 1879 led to an agrarian agitation of huge dimensions; and a formidable political and social organization, known as the *Irish Land League*, rapidly arose in Ireland. The leaders of the Irish agitation were Charles Stewart Parnell, John Dillon and Michael Davitt, members of Parliament. Parnell and other agitators addressed large meetings of Irish peasants in different parts of the Emerald Isle, urging the peasants to demand land reform and to refuse the payment of exorbitant rents to landlords. The peasants accordingly refused the payment of rents and resisted evictions by landlords and land-agents, some of whom fell victims to the vengeance of the peasants. Michael Davitt, James Bryce Killen and James Daly were arrested and ordered to appear before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin; but the prosecutions were not pressed. Parnell and Dillon visited America in January, 1880, to solicit subscriptions for the Irish cause.

**Agrarian
Agitation
in
Ireland.**

In March, 1880, Lord Beaconsfield dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections to test the sentiment of the British nation on his foreign policy. The elections, which were held April 1, 1880, resulted in a decisive defeat for Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry and returned an overwhelming Liberal majority in the House of Commons; whereupon Lord Beaconsfield's Conservative Ministry resigned, and a new Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone came into power. The newly-elected Parliament assembled in May, 1880; and during the summer of that year the Gladstone Ministry introduced a Compensation for Disturbance Bill designed for the benefit of the Irish peasantry. The measure was passed by the House of Commons, but was rejected by the House of Lords, thus increasing political and social discontent in Ireland.

**Election
of 1880**

**Glad-
stone's
Second
Ministry.**

In 1880 Lord Lytton was succeeded as Governor-General, or Viceroy, of British India by the Marquis of Ripon. A body of Afghans overpowered and massacred a British garrison near Candahar, April 16, 1880. General Stewart defeated the Afghans near Ghiznee, killing and wounding two-thirds of their force of three thousand men, April 19, 1880. The British recognized Abdur Rahman Khan as Ameer of Afghanistan. An Afghan army of twelve thousand men from Herat under Ayooob Khan annihilated a British force of twenty-five hundred men under General Burrows at Candahar, July 27, 1880, and besieged Candahar. General Roberts marched to the relief of the British force at Candahar, and General Brooke was killed in a sortie

**Close
of the
Anglo-
Afghan
War.**

from that town about the middle of August, 1880. Ayooob Khan raised the siege of Candahar on the approach of General Roberts, who dispersed his army and captured twenty-seven cannon, September 1, 1880. Ayooob Khan became a fugitive. In accordance with Mr. Gladstone's policy, the British evacuated Candahar and thus abandoned Afghanistan, early in 1881.

**Civil
Wars in
Afghan-
istan.**

In the summer of 1881 civil war broke out in Afghanistan, caused by Ayooob Khan's endeavor to wrest the Afghan throne from the Ameer Abdur Rahman Khan. On July 27, 1881, Ayooob Khan totally defeated the Ameer, who lost all his baggage and cannon. Grave complications were feared, and the British Indian government was greatly alarmed, but the Ameer soon retrieved his lost fortunes. The civil war in Afghanistan was ended by the capture of Herat by the Ameer's army after a battle with Ayooob Khan's insurgent force, in September, 1881. In 1887 a rebellion broke out in Afghanistan at the secret instigation of Russia; and the Ameer was defeated several times, but he afterward gained several great victories and triumphed over the rebels.

**Glad-
stone's
Policy of
Coercion
toward
Turkey.**

Mr. Gladstone reversed Lord Beaconsfield's policy on the Eastern question, and under his direction Great Britain headed a coalition of the European Powers in a policy of coercion against Turkey. Mr. Goschen, the new British ambassador at Constantinople, plainly informed the Sultan that Great Britain was resolved upon the execution of the promised reforms in Asiatic Turkey. At Great Britain's solicitation, a supplementary conference of the Great Powers was held at Berlin, in June, 1880, to execute the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin. The conference discussed the questions of reforms and the Greek frontier, and British diplomacy was completely successful on the Greek frontier question. Turkey protested against the protocol signed by the European Powers. The Porte encouraged the Albanians to fight the Montenegrins, and war seemed imminent between Greece and Turkey on the frontier question. Early in August, 1880, the Albanians rejected the Porte's authority and defied the will of Europe. Under Great Britain's leadership, the European Powers proceeded to coerce the Porte. Great Britain and Russia led in this policy, and Anglo-Russian diplomacy maintained the European concert. A European fleet under the British Admiral Seymour prepared to enforce the decisions of the Supplementary Berlin Conference. About the middle of September, 1880, the Albanians seized the town and fortress of Dulcigno. The Sultan boldly defied the European Powers and warned the Montenegrins to make no demonstration against Dulcigno. He refused to surrender Dulcigno to the Montenegrins unless the Great Powers abandoned their naval demonstration. This defiance excited the indignation of the Great Powers; and the British people warmly

supported Mr. Gladstone in his policy of coercion, while the other Great Powers cordially supported Great Britain in her new policy toward Turkey. Great Britain prepared to advance on Dulcigno, and Admiral Seymour was ordered to seize Smyrna. This bold step on Great Britain's part brought Turkey to terms; and Dervish Pasha wrested Dulcigno from the Albanians, November 24, 1880, and the Porte surrendered the town to the Montenegrins.

In the summer of 1880 Charles Bradlaugh, who was an atheist and a republican, was refused his seat in the House of Commons, to which he had been chosen by the electors of Northampton, because he refused to take the oath of fidelity to the queen and to the Christian religion. The electors of Northampton again chose him, but the House of Commons again rejected him in the summer of 1881. The electors of Northampton chose him a third time, but the House of Commons still refused him his seat.

**Brad-
laugh's
Repeated
Elections
and Re-
jections.**

We have alluded to the annexation of the Transvaal Republic, in South Africa, to the British dominion in 1877. In December, 1880, the Boers, or Dutch farmers of the Transvaal, rose in arms to recover their independence; and after the British General Colley had been defeated in three engagements, in the last of which, at Majuba Hill, he was killed, February 27, 1881, the British restored the independence of the Boers, under the suzerainty of Queen Victoria, in accordance with Mr. Gladstone's policy, which was a reversal of the policy of aggression inaugurated by Lord Beaconsfield.

**Anglo-
Boer
War of
1880-81.**

By its reversal of the aggressive foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield, the new Liberal Ministry of Mr. Gladstone was enabled to devote its attention exclusively to questions of internal reform, which had ceased when the Liberal party under Mr. Gladstone had gone out of power early in 1874.

**Questions
of
Reform.**

There were riots and disturbances in Ireland during the year 1880, and general lawlessness prevailed throughout the island. British troops, to the number of thirty thousand, were sent into Ireland, in the fall of 1880, to aid the police in maintaining order and to suppress any attempt at rebellion; and Mr. Parnell and the other Irish leaders were prosecuted by the British government, but the prosecutions failed, as the accused were acquitted by a jury before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin, January 25, 1881. William E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland in Gladstone's Ministry, introduced Coercion Bills for the suppression of lawlessness and outrages in Ireland; and these measures were passed by Parliament early in March, 1881, after weeks of discussion, during which the Irish Home Rule members of the House of Commons were suspended several times for obstructing the proceedings of Parliament. Under these Coercion Acts, Michael

**Lawless-
ness in
Ireland
and
Coercion
Act of
1881.**

Davitt, John Dillon and other Irish agitators were arrested and imprisoned.

Ostra-
cism of
Captain
Boycott.

In the meantime Captain Boycott, a land agent of Lord Erne and a tenant farmer at Lough Mask, in County Mayo, Ireland, having incurred the displeasure of other tenant farmers, was socially ostracised by the tenantry and besieged on his farm, all refusing to have any dealings or business relations with him, to buy from or sell to him or to assist him in harvesting or gathering his crops, so that he was left alone, without a friend among his neighbors, and his crops were in danger of rotting on his farm. Finally, about the middle of November, 1880, he was relieved by a relief force composed of British troops, constabulary and Orangemen. The Boycott relief expedition was hooted at, but no actual violence was attempted, and the crops on Captain Boycott's farm were gathered by the Orangemen, protected by about seven thousand British troops. The work occupied about two weeks and cost the British government about forty thousand pounds sterling. This social and business ostracism and persecution of Captain Boycott was the origin of the general practice of what has since been called "boycotting," as practiced in other countries as well as in Ireland. The British government has made ineffectual attempts for the legal suppression of "boycotting" in Ireland.

Glad-
stone's
Irish
Land
Act of
1881.

The Tory, or Conservative party lost their greatest leader in the death of Lord Beaconsfield, April 19, 1881. On April 7, 1881, Mr. Gladstone introduced a new Irish Land Bill providing for free sales, fair rents and fixity of tenure. This bill provided for compensation by landlords to tenants in Ireland for improvements, and it prohibited the eviction of tenants for fifteen years, except for breach of contract. The object of the bill was the establishment of a peasant proprietary for Ireland. On introducing the bill Mr. Gladstone made a great speech in favor of the measure in the name of justice to the Irish people, and he was loudly cheered after the close of his two hours' speech. After a series of spirited debates, the *Irish Land Act* passed both Houses of Parliament, and it received the royal assent August 22, 1881.

Glad-
stone's
Policies
of Re-
pression
and Con-
ciliation.

As the Land League agitation continued after the passage of the Land Act, the Gladstone Ministry imprisoned Mr. Parnell and the other agitators, October, 1881, and the Irish Land League was declared illegal and was completely suppressed. Early in May, 1882, Messrs. Parnell and Davitt were liberated, and Mr. Gladstone undertook to abandon the Coercion Act and to adopt a conciliatory policy toward Ireland. To carry out this policy, the Rt. Hon. William E. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Earl Cowper, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, resigned. No sooner had Earl Spencer, the new

Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord Frederick Cavendish, the new Chief Secretary for Ireland, entered upon their duties in Dublin Castle than Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke were assassinated in cold blood in Phoenix Park, Dublin, while the park was crowded with an assemblage to rejoice over the release of the Irish suspects, May 6, 1882. The murder of the amiable Lord Frederick Cavendish, who had been sent as a peace-offering to Ireland, excited horror throughout England, Ireland and the civilized world; and Parliament passed a new repression bill. Parliament also passed an act for the relief of tenants in arrears of rent. Shocking agrarian murders were still committed in Ireland; but the assassins were arrested, tried, convicted and executed. The assassins of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke were discovered at last, and were tried, convicted and executed in the spring of 1883.

Assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke.

In the meantime ex-King Cetywayo of Zululand had sojourned in England, and he visited Queen Victoria at Osborne, August 14, 1882. Civil war in the meantime had broken out in Zululand, in 1882. Mr. Gladstone's Ministry reversed Lord Beaconsfield's action by restoring Cetywayo to his throne. He returned to Zululand in September, 1882, being heartily cheered as he left London.

Cetywayo's Visit to England.

The subserviency of the Khedive of Egypt and his suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey, to the influence of Great Britain and France in Egypt aroused the jealousy of the Egyptian National party, whose cry was "Egypt for the Egyptians." In April, 1879, the Egyptian army forced the Khedive Ismail Pasha to abdicate, and Tewfik Pasha became Khedive of Egypt. Great Britain had purchased two-thirds of the Suez Canal stock in 1875, thus securing a controlling interest in that great highway to the East. In 1879 Great Britain and France established a joint control over the finances of Egypt. The heavy interest paid to English and French bondholders retarded the material prosperity of Egypt and increased the jealousy of the Egyptian National party against foreign influence. In September, 1881, a military riot forced the Khedive to change his Ministry. In the spring of 1882 Arabi Pasha, the Egyptian Minister of War, arrayed the Egyptian army against the Khedive and foreign influence in Egypt. The Khedive became utterly powerless, and Arabi Pasha became virtual master of Egypt. The Europeans were mobbed in Alexandria, and about three hundred were massacred, June 11, 1882. The hostile attitude of Arabi Pasha caused Great Britain to intervene to restore the Khedive's authority and to protect the Suez Canal, her highway to India. Arabi Pasha strengthened the fortifications of Alexandria, and his refusal to desist caused the bombardment and destruction of the forts at Alexandria by the British fleet under Admiral Seymour, July 11,

Arabi Pasha's Rebellion in Egypt.

Bombardment of Alexandria by a British Fleet.

British
Over-
throw of
Arabi
Pasha.

1882. The next day Arabi Pasha evacuated Alexandria under protection of a flag of truce; whereupon the Bedouins and liberated convicts plundered the city, laid one-third of the city in ashes and massacred two thousand Christians and Europeans, July 13, 1882. Great Britain then sent land troops to Egypt from England and India. The British seized the Suez Canal late in August, 1882, and the British fleet conveyed the land troops up the Canal to the head of the Red Sea. After defeating the Egyptian rebels at Ramses, August 24, 1882, and at Kassassin, August 30 and September 9, 1882, the British under Sir Garnet Wolseley dispersed Arabi Pasha's army at Tel-el-Kebir and took Arabi Pasha prisoner, after a battle of twenty minutes, in which Arabi Pasha lost about fifteen hundred men in killed and wounded, while the British lost almost four hundred, September 13, 1882, and entered Cairo in triumph the next day, September 14, 1882. The Khedive's authority was thus fully restored by British bayonets, and British influence became paramount in Egypt. Arabi Pasha and the other Egyptian rebel leaders were court-martialed and exiled early in December, 1882. Arabi Pasha was assigned a residence in the island of Ceylon by the British. General Sir Garnet Wolseley was created Lord Wolseley, as a reward for his distinguished services.

The
False
Prophet
of the
Egyptian
Soudan.

Mohammed Achmet, the new Messiah of Islam—better known as El Mahdi, or the False Prophet—led the Mohammedan tribes of the Soudan against the Egyptians in 1881; and in 1882 he gained repeated victories over the Egyptian forces. El Mahdi disputed the title of Khalif with the Sultan of Turkey, and his followers were inspired with unbounded religious enthusiasm. At El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan, in November, 1883, El Mahdi, at the head of three hundred thousand followers, cut to pieces an Egyptian army of ten thousand men under Hicks Pasha, an Englishman in the Egyptian service; thus creating the greatest alarm and terror in Cairo and causing the rebellion to spread with lightning-like rapidity throughout the Egyptian Soudan. Another Egyptian force was utterly slaughtered in a sortie from Suakim, December 5, 1883. An Egyptian force under Baker Pasha, also an Englishman in the Egyptian service, was annihilated by the False Prophet's followers, February 4, 1884. The Egyptian rebels—Arab allies of the False Prophet—under Osman Digma, captured Sinkat, February 11, 1884, massacring the garrison with the women and children, and compelled the garrison of Tokar to surrender, February 21, 1884. Great Britain interfered in favor of the Khedive of Egypt, and a small British force under General Graham was sent against the Arab rebels of Nubia and the Soudan. General Graham's force defeated Osman Digma's rebel force with heavy loss at Teb, February 29,

Great
Britain's
Interven-
tion.

1884, and at Tamanieb, March 13th, and burned Tamanieb and dispersed the rebels, March 27th. In the meantime Gordon Pasha, a Scotchman long in the Egyptian service, was defeated by El Mahdi's forces near Khartoum, March 16, 1884, and was in a perilous position at Khartoum. The Arab rebels massacred the garrison of Shendy, with two thousand of its inhabitants—men, women and children, April 15, 1884; and captured Berber and cruelly massacred its inhabitants, May 26th.

During the spring and summer of 1884 General Gordon was closely besieged at Khartoum. He made constant sorties, and captured Berber, Shendy and Metemneh, in October, 1884. Colonel Stewart with Forty men was massacred by treacherous Arabs on his way to Dongola, and the French consul at Khartoum was assassinated in September, 1884. In the meantime a British expedition under Lord Wolseley was sent to rescue General Gordon at Khartoum; and General Stewart defeated the Arab rebels at Abu Klea Wells, January 17, 1885, where the gallant Colonel Burnaby was killed. General Stewart extricated himself from his perilous position by a victory at Korti, near Metemneh, January 19, 1885, but was severely wounded in the action. Finally El Mahdi took Khartoum through the treachery of some of Gordon's Pashas, January 26, 1885; and General Gordon was killed, while the garrison and the women and children were massacred. General Stewart died of wounds received at Korti, February 18, 1885. Meanwhile General Earle took Birti by storm, but was mortally wounded in the engagement, February 10, 1885. Thus the British relief expedition was a total failure, and General Lord Wolseley was in full retreat and forced to act on the defensive. General Graham defeated Osman Digma in another fight at Suakim, March 20, 1885. The British garrison at Massowah repulsed an Arab attack, April 14, 1885, and Osman Digma retreated. General Graham occupied and burned Tamanieb in May, 1885. El Mahdi died late in 1885, but the war continued fourteen years longer.

**Fall of
Khar-
toun and
Fate of
Gordon.**

**Failure
of the
British
Relief
Expedi-
tion.**

In England, Irish conspirators used dynamite with terrible effect, blowing up the local government building in London, March 15, 1883; but some of the Irish dynamite manufacturers were detected, arrested, tried, convicted and imprisoned for life. Another explosion occurred in the Victoria Railway Station in London, late in February, 1884. A frightful explosion occurred in Scotland Yard, London, May 30, 1884. A terrible explosion occurred under London Bridge, December 13, 1884. The most frightful of all these dynamite explosions were those under the Houses of Parliament and the Tower, January 24, 1885; that under the Parliament buildings doing fearful damage and arousing ing intense indignation in England.

**Irish
Dynamite
Plots in
England.**

**Passage
of the
Third
Reform
Bill.**

In July, 1884, Parliament discussed Mr. Gladstone's new Franchise Bill. The Lords opposed the bill; and on July 21st there was a monster demonstration in London in favor of the measure, one hundred thousand workingmen composing the procession to protest against the rejection of popular suffrage. The London *Standard's* premature publication of the bill for a redistribution of Parliamentary seats, October 9, 1884, caused a political sensation, but prepared the way for a compromise on the Franchise Bill. Finally, in November, 1884, the Franchise Bill was passed by both Houses of Parliament; and upon receiving the royal assent, December 6, 1884, that great measure—the *Third Reform Bill*—became a law, thus enfranchising all but paupers, lunatics and criminals and making the suffrage well-nigh universal throughout the United Kingdom.

**Anglo-
Russian
Dispute
over
Afghan-
istan.**

In 1884 the Marquis of Ripon was succeeded as Governor-General, or Viceroy, of British India by Lord Dufferin. In the spring of 1885 a serious dispute between Great Britain and Russia threatened to end in war. Russia had already conquered all the Tartar Khanates of Turkestan and was now threatening Afghanistan, an ally of Great Britain. The boundary between Afghanistan and Russian Turkestan was in dispute; and the Russian General Komaroff invaded Afghan territory, and attacked and defeated the Afghans at Penjdeh, March 30, 1885. This unprovoked aggression aroused great excitement and indignation in England, and both Great Britain and Russia were making extensive military preparations. A magnificent meeting between the Ameer of Afghanistan and Lord Dufferin, Viceroy of British India, occurred at Rawul Pindi. Parliament granted Mr. Gladstone a credit of eleven million pounds sterling, after he had made a masterly speech; but the dispute was peacefully settled.

**Lord
Salis-
bury's
First
Ministry.**

**Election
of 1885.**

The Ministry being defeated on the budget June 8, 1885, Mr. Gladstone resigned; and a Tory Ministry under the Marquis of Salisbury came into power, June 22, 1885. The new Conservative Ministry dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections. These elections were held late in November, 1885, and resulted in a plurality of Liberals; while the Irish Home Rulers, who had united with the Tories to drive Gladstone from power and who aided the Tories in the elections, held the balance of power between the Liberals and Conservatives, so that Mr. Parnell, "Ireland's uncrowned king," was virtual master of the political situation in Great Britain and Ireland.

**British
Conquest
of
Burmah.**

A dispute having arisen with King Thebaw of Burmah, an Anglo-Indian army under General Prendergast invaded and conquered Burmah in November, 1885, and occupied Mandalay, the Burmese capital. King Thebaw was deposed by the British; and on January 1, 1886, Burmah was declared annexed to the British Indian Empire. This

British conquest had been easily accomplished; but the Dacoits, or Burmese robbers, greatly annoyed the conquerors for several years.

The new Parliament convened January 21, 1886. Five days later the Ministry was defeated by the adoption of an amendment to the queen's speech relating to allotments of land; whereupon Lord Salisbury resigned, and a Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone again came into power, February 1, 1886. In this Parliament, Charles Bradlaugh took his seat for the borough of Northampton, having been chosen by that constituency for the fourth time.

Gladstone's
Third
Ministry.

At the beginning of April, 1886, Mr. Gladstone introduced a Home Rule Bill for Ireland providing for the restoration of the Irish Parliament on College Green, in Dub.in. The speech in which Mr. Gladstone introduced this measure was one of the greatest that he had ever made, and it drew forth an immense concourse of people. After two months of discussion, this Home Rule Bill was rejected by Parliament, early in June, 1886; whereupon Mr. Gladstone dissolved Parliament and ordered new elections. A branch of the Liberal party, under John Bright, Joseph Chamberlain and the Marquis of Hartington, had voted with the Conservatives against the Home Rule Bill and formed a coalition with the Conservatives; and this coalition defeated Mr. Gladstone and his followers in the elections, which were held early in July, 1886.

Rejection
of His
Home
Rule
Bill for
Ireland.

Election
of 1886.

In consequence of the Conservative victory in the elections, Mr. Gladstone and his Ministry resigned July 20, 1886; and the Conservatives under Lord Salisbury again returned to power. In the new Conservative Ministry, Lord Randolph Churchill, the progressive young Tory leader, occupied the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader in the House of Commons. Parliament assembled August 5, 1886. For several weeks in August, 1886, there was almost daily rioting between the Catholics and the Orangemen in Belfast, Ireland; and soldiers fired into the crowd and killed many. These Belfast riots were frequently renewed during the next few months.

Lord
Salisbury's
Second
Ministry.

Belfast
Riots.

Mr. Parnell's Land Bill was rejected by Parliament, September 18, 1886. Parliament was prorogued September 22d until November 11th following. Lord Randolph Churchill resigned from the Ministry, December 23, 1886. The irrepressible conflict in Ireland reopened with renewed animosity. The Tory Ministers of Great Britain seemed bent on trying the oft-repeated policy of coercion to suppress political agitation in the discontented Emerald Isle. No Irish legislation except such as related to coercion and the bill enlarging the provisions of the Ashbourne Land Act were acted upon by Parliament. The Liberal Unionists, as the Liberal faction under the Marquis of Hartington were called, because they opposed a separate Parliament for Ireland, heartily supported the coercive measures of the Tory Ministry.

Lord
Salisbury's
Coercion
Policy for
Ireland.

**John
Dillon
and His
Plan of
Cam-
paign.**

In December, 1886, John Dillon was prosecuted by the Ministry for agitation in favor of the "plan of campaign." He acted as his own counsel before the Court of Queen's Bench in Dublin. He justified the remarks for which he was prosecuted, charging the crown with straining the law against him. The Judge declared the "plan of campaign" illegal and allowed Mr. Dillon the option of furnishing a bond for future good behavior or going to jail for six months. Mr. Dillon was advised by his friends to furnish bail, continue the anti-rent agitation and force a jury trial by estreat of sureties.

**Renewal
of
Agrarian
Agitation
in
Ireland.**

The "plan of campaign" was a renewal, in a modified form, of Mr. Parnell's no-rent agitation of several years before. In consequence of another failure of their crops, Irish tenants were unable to pay the full amounts of rents imposed upon them; and the Irish leaders encouraged the peasants to pay just such rents as they were able to pay, and, if the landlords refused to accept such reduced rents, to pay them to the Irish leaders themselves, who acted as trustees for their tenants. The Ministry, backed by the Irish judiciary, held that the "plan of campaign" was entirely illegal and that its object was to defraud the landlords out of their rents. Several Irish members of Parliament who took the reduced rents of estates were threatened with prosecution for embezzlement if they did not turn the money thus collected into the public treasury. These phases of the Irish agitation and riots at Cork and other places in Ireland portended another season of disquietude for misgoverned Erin. Gladstone and Parnell disapproved of the "plan of campaign."

**Mr.
Balfour's
Coercion
Bill for
Ireland.**

On March 21, 1887, Arthur James Balfour, the new Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet, introduced a stringent coercion bill for Ireland. After several months of discussion, this bill was passed in July, 1887. The passage of this tyrannically-repressive measure was followed by its practical application. The Irish National League was proclaimed an illegal organization, so that it was unlawful for that powerful political organization to hold meetings. The cruel evictions of non-rent-paying tenants and the firing of the police and the military into crowds led to violence and bloodshed in Ireland. The Mitchelstown affray, in the fall of 1887, on which occasion the police and the military fired into the assembled multitude, highly exasperated the Irish people.

**Violence
in
Ireland.**

**Irish
Land
Act of
1887.**

The new Land Act which the Ministry introduced and carried through Parliament was shorn of some of its most salutary provisions in the shape of amendments by the House of Lords, so that it was rendered practically valueless as a remedial measure and did very little to ameliorate the condition of the peasant tenantry of Ireland. Parliament was prorogued by Queen Victoria in September, 1887.



Left: A Postman's Cottage in Monaghan



Right: Claddagh, a Suburb of Galway

From Stereographs, copyright 1901 and 1903 by Underwood & Underwood
SCENES IN IRELAND

On Tuesday, June 20, 1887—the fiftieth anniversary of the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland—London was ablaze with enthusiasm over a great jubilee demonstration in honor of the event. Over a million people witnessed this great demonstration—this greatest state pageant in English history. Whatever boundless wealth, military pomp and illustrious rank could do to create and heighten the effect of the British nation's exhibition of loyalty, to demonstrate the affection of the English people for their illustrious sovereign, was done for the great demonstration to celebrate the end of the first fifty years of Her Majesty's reign. The enthusiastic exhibitions of loyalty of the English masses, along with the numerous costly presents which the queen received, testified to the British people's loyalty to a queen whose reign has been the most prosperous as well as one of the longest in the history of the British nation.

**Jubilee
Anniver-
sary of
Queen
Victoria's
Accession.**

During the fall of 1887 there were thousands of evictions in Ireland for non-payment of rent. There were numerous evictions at Bodyke, where the evicted tenants resisted the police and fought desperately for their homes. William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, one of the leading journals of Dublin, was arrested under the Coercion Act on a charge of sedition and was incarcerated in Tullamore jail. The evicted peasants and others took terrible vengeance on the officers of the law. The Moonlighters waylaid and murdered police and land agents in different parts of Ireland, and a reign of terror prevailed in that unhappy country. Mr. Mandeville and Lord Mayor Sullivan of Dublin were also arrested, tried, convicted and sent to Tullamore jail for two months. Timothy Harrington was also arrested and sent to jail. These arrests of Irish leaders and members of Parliament were made for the purpose of crippling the Irish National League. Mr. O'Brien was arrested at Manchester, in England, in January, 1889, and was taken to Ireland, tried, convicted and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in Clonmel jail. Timothy Harrington was arrested and imprisoned about the same time.

**Evictions
and Law-
lessness
in
Ireland.**

**Arrests
of Irish
Leaders.**

The Irish agitation still continued to disturb British politics. The most important event in connection with this agitation was the action of Parliament in appointing a commission to investigate the charges which the London *Times* made against Mr. Parnell in the summer of 1887 in a series of articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," by which that great journal sought to connect the Irish leader with the deeds of lawless men and assassins, even going so far as to publish letters purporting to have been written by Mr. Parnell, openly sympathizing with the assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under Secretary Burke, in May, 1882. Mr. Parnell at once pronounced the letters forgeries. After an investigation of many months, an irresponsible wretch named

**Parnell's
Libel
Suit
against
the
London
"Times."**

Richard Piggott, when driven to the wall by a rigid cross-examination by Mr. Parnell's counsel, confessed that the letters were forgeries, thus producing a profound sensation in the court-room and throughout the country, February 26, 1889. Piggott at once fled to Madrid, in Spain, where he blew out his brains as he was about to be arrested by order of the British government, March 1, 1889.

**His
Vindica-
tion.**

This inglorious result of the investigation dumfounded the Ministry and the Tories, and the investigation developed nothing of consequence thereafter. Mr. Parnell's vindication had been complete; and the attempt of the greatest newspaper of the world to fasten a disgraceful crime upon the Home Rule leader failed most ignominiously, placing the London *Times* in a most humiliating dilemma.

**British
Indian
Invasion
of
Thibet.**

In the summer of 1888, Thibet, a tributary of the Chinese Empire, sent a military force of ten thousand men across the Himalayas into the small Hindoo state of Sikkim, which was claimed as a dependency of Thibet, although it had been tributary to British India for more than half a century. After twice repulsing the Thibetan invaders and driving them out of Sikkim, a British Indian force of fifteen hundred men, under Colonel Graham, pursued them across the Himalayas into their own country and utterly routed and dispersed them in two engagements, with the loss of one thousand men, September 21 and 24, 1888, after which the British Indian force returned triumphantly to Sikkim.

**British
Indian
Conquest
of Black
Mountain
Tribes.**

A British Indian expedition under Generals McQueen, Channer and Galbraith humbled the Black Mountain tribes, on the north-western frontier of British India, after defeating them in a number of conflicts in October and November, 1888. In December, 1888, Lord Dufferin was succeeded as Viceroy of British India by Lord Lansdowne.

**Anglo-
Egyptian
Victories
over the
Mahdists.**

During the whole of the year 1888 the British and Egyptians under General Sir Francis Grenfell were besieged by the Mahdists under Osman Digma at Suakim, but the Dervishes were severely defeated by the British and Egyptians at Handoub, January 17, 1888; at Wady Halfa, July 4 and 22, 1888; at Toski, August 3, 1888; and at Suakim, December 20, 1888.

**Anglo-
Portu-
guese
Dispute.**

In November, 1889, the relations between Great Britain and Portugal became strained, in consequence of British occupation of certain territory in South-eastern Africa, claimed by Portugal for several centuries. Great Britain denied Portugal's claims because the territory had been simply claimed but never occupied, and the attempt of Major Serpa Pinto to drive the British from the disputed territory threatened to bring on trouble. The excitement in Portugal ran high, and mobs in Lisbon threatened the British Minister. The Portuguese government wisely acceded to Great Britain's terms, but popular indigna-

tion in Portugal was not easily allayed and brought on a Ministerial crisis in that country in September, 1890.

Coercion was again tried in Ireland in the fall of 1889. Mr. Balfour's Irish Land Purchase Bill, a Tithes Bill and a Local Government Bill—all three measures applying to Ireland—occupied the attention of Parliament for many months during 1890 and 1891, without any decisive action thereon. Another famine in Ireland, during the fall of 1890, aroused the British government to undertake measures of relief for the starving peasantry, and Mr. Balfour himself visited the famine-stricken districts.

**Mr.
Balfour's
Irish
Measures.**

In the summer of 1890 Great Britain entered into treaties with Germany, Portugal and France, partitioning the African continent. The Anglo-German agreement defined the boundaries between the British and German possessions in Eastern Africa; while Great Britain ceded the little isle of Heligoland, in the North Sea, close to the German coast, to Germany, it having been in Great Britain's possession since it was acquired from Denmark in 1814. By the Anglo-Portuguese agreement the limits of the British and Portuguese territories in South-eastern Africa were defined. The Anglo-French agreement was concerning the extent of the British and French territories in Central and Western Africa. Great Britain and Italy finally came to terms respecting the lower Red Sea coast of Africa, early in April, 1891. The British South Africa Company was doing much for the development of South-eastern Africa, while the British East Africa Company was active in carrying commerce and civilization into Eastern Africa. A British protectorate was proclaimed over Zanzibar, November 7, 1890.

**Partition
of
Africa.**

In September, 1890, John Dillon and William O'Brien were arrested for their activity in renewing the "Plan of Campaign" and were tried at Tipperary. The trial was disturbed by riots and scenes of violence, while Dillon and O'Brien escaped to the United States, where they remained until early the next year.

**Arrest
of Irish
Leaders.**

In November, 1890, Mr. Parnell lost his political influence by being involved in a private scandal which led to the divorce of Captain O'Shea from his wife. The English Liberals and the bulk of the Irish Home Rulers and the Irish Roman Catholic hierarchy at once demanded Mr. Parnell's withdrawal from the Irish political leadership; but Mr. Parnell obstinately refused, whereupon the Irish Parliamentary party, by a two-thirds vote, deposed him and chose Justin McCarthy for their leader, December 6, 1890, and the Irish Home Rule party was split into two hostile factions, which proceeded at once to measure their strength in the election to fill the Parliamentary vacancy in North Kilkenny. The leaders of the Anti-Parnellite faction were such able men as Michael Davitt, John Dillon, William O'Brien, Thomas Sex-

**Parnell's
Eclipse.**

ton, Timothy D. Healy and Maurice Healy; while the prominent leaders who adhered to Mr. Parnell were the two Harringtons and the brothers John and William Redmond. The short electoral campaign in North Kilkenny was marked by the most intense factional bitterness, the mass meetings of both factions being disturbed and sometimes broken up by fights and riots, Mr. Davitt on one occasion being battered by the Parnellite mob, and Mr. Parnell's eyes being injured by lime thrown at him by an Anti-Parnellite. The election, which was held December 15, 1890, resulted in the triumph of the Anti-Parnellite candidate, Sir John Pope Hennessy, over his Parnellite opponent by more than one thousand majority.

**Rival
Irish
Factions.**

Early in January, 1890, William O'Brien, who had just returned from America, held conferences with Mr. Parnell at Boulogne, in France, with the view of healing the breach in the Irish Home Rule party, but all efforts at reconciliation failed, and the two opposing factions continued to be arrayed against each other in hostile camps. O'Brien and Dillon returned to Ireland in February, 1891, and served out their three months' sentences in Clonmel and Galway jails.

**Parnellite
Defeats.**

In the election to fill the Parliamentary vacancy in North Sligo, April 2, 1891, the Anti-Parnellite candidate was also elected by over a thousand majority, after a campaign marked by the same bitterness and violence as that of North Kilkenny. The Parnellites met with a third reverse in the election to fill the vacancy in Carlow, in July, 1891, the Anti-Parnellite candidate being chosen by about two thousand majority. Mr. Parnell's marriage with the divorced wife of Captain O'Shea and his sudden death on the very day of Sir John Pope Hennessy's death, October 7, 1891, did not lead to a reunion of the hostile factions. The Parnellites rejected all overtures from the Anti-Parnellites, whom they denounced as guilty of the basest ingratitude in vilifying Mr. Parnell and hounding him to his grave. The Anti-Parnellites elected a successor to Mr. Parnell, in Cork, November 7, 1891, one month after the great leader's death; but in the election to fill the vacancy in Waterford, late in December, 1891, the Parnellite candidate, John E. Redmond, was elected over Michael Davitt, the Anti-Parnellite nominee, after a short campaign characterized by riot and bloodshed, during which Mr. Davitt was mobbed and assaulted. The two factions bitterly opposed each other for several years. Late in 1892 Mr. Davitt was elected to Parliament from Meath, but his election was set aside by the judges on account of priestly interference and intimidation.

**Parnell's
Marriage
and
Death.**

**Continued
Irish
Dissen-
sions.**

**Manipur
Revolt in
British
India.**

On September 21, 1890, a rising occurred in the small native state of Manipur, in North-eastern British India, the Maharajah's brother seizing the palace and magazine, the Maharajah taking refuge in

the British residency and finally abdicating in favor of his brother, September 26, 1890. Fights occurred in which two British officers, Lieutenant Swinton and Major Brown, were killed. Late in March, 1891, a British force of several thousand Choorkas was massacred in Manipur by rebel tribesmen; and Mr. Quinton, commissioner for Assam, and other British officers were taken prisoners and massacred. British reinforcements rapidly advanced on Manipur. Lieutenant Grant with the 4th Ghoorkas carried by assault the mud fort of Thobal, early in April, 1891; and an attack upon Lieutenant Grant's position was repulsed, the Senaputty, or Regent, being killed. After being reinforced, Lieutenant Grant retreated and repulsed an attack on the way, in May, 1891. A British expedition occupied Manipur early in May. The Senaputty was taken prisoner by Major Maxwell, May 23, 1891. The Senaputty and other Manipur leaders were tried and convicted of murder in killing British officers, June 13, 1891, and were sentenced to be hanged. The Senaputty and the Tonga general were executed; but the sentences of the others were commuted to exile for life, and their property was confiscated. A collateral relative of the late Senaputty was selected for the throne of Manipur, September 13, 1891. The British also defeated the Lushais in 1891 and 1892.

The British had also been engaged in hostilities in Upper Burmah with the Chins, the Hunzas, the Kachins and the Dacoits. Early in April, 1891, Lieutenant McNabb was ambushed and routed by the Kamkow Chins. The Chin tribes threatened great trouble, and expeditions were sent against them. During 1891, 1892 and 1893 the British routed the Chins, the Hunzas, the Kachins and the Dacoits in numerous conflicts.

**Hostilities with
Burmese
Tribes.**

In the meantime the British East Africa Company and the British South Africa Company had been doing much for the development of the British territories in the eastern and southern portions of the African continent. The British territories of Zambesia, Matabeleland, Mashonaland, Swaziland and other regions were being occupied and settled by the British. In August, 1890, Great Britain entered into a convention with the Transvaal Republic about Swaziland. Mashonaland was occupied by the British South Africa Company in September, 1890. The discovery of gold in Mashonaland, in January and February, 1891, accelerated its settlement. The British entered into a treaty with the King of Uganda in March, 1891. In October, 1890, a British squadron from Zanzibar took Witu by storm after the Sultan had refused to surrender the murderers of a German party. A British expedition under Mr. Johnston was massacred on Lake Nyassa, in January, 1892. The British defeated the natives of Witu

**British
Expansion in
South
Africa.**

in March, 1892. In Western Africa the British defeated the natives at Tambi, in Sierra Leone, in March, 1892, and defeated the Jebus in a number of conflicts in May and June, 1892, finally capturing the King of the Jebus. The British also won victories over the natives of South-eastern Africa, in March, 1892.

**Behring
Sea
Arbitra-
tion.**

In the spring of 1892 the controversy between Great Britain and the United States concerning the Behring Sea seal fisheries was left to arbitration, and a Board of Arbitrators was appointed by Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy and Sweden. The Arbitrators met at Paris in the spring and summer of 1893 and decided in favor of Great Britain.

**Captain
Young-
husband.**

In 1891 the advance of Russia to the Pamir, in Central Asia, led to the sending of a British expedition of observation under Captain Younghusband in the fall of that year, but all trouble was avoided by an amicable arrangement between Great Britain and Russia.

**Canadian
Pacific
Railway
Scandal.**

In 1892 the investigation into the Canadian Pacific Railway scandal developed an astonishing amount of corruption and bribery in which a number of prominent Canadian officials were seriously involved, among whom was Sir John Macdonald, who had recently died and who had been Prime Minister of Canada for many years.

**Prince
Albert
Victor's
Death.**

On January 14, 1892, the British nation was called upon to mourn the death of Her Majesty's eldest grandson, His Royal Highness Prince Albert Victor Christian Edward, Duke of Clarence and Avondale and Earl of Athlone, the eldest son of the Prince of Wales and the heir-apparent to the British throne, who shortly was to be married to his cousin, the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck. This death occurred on the very day of the deaths of two eminent and venerable Roman Catholic dignitaries, the octogenarian Cardinal Edward Manning, of England, and Cardinal Simeoni, of Rome. On the 6th of July, 1893, the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck was married to His Royal Highness Prince George, the brother of the deceased Prince Albert Victor and the new heir-apparent to the British throne. Sir Provo Wallis, the centenarian admiral of the British navy, died February 13, 1892, at the ripe old age of one hundred years and ten months.

**Other
Notable
Deaths.**

**Election
of 1892,**

In the meantime the Home Rule question occupied the most prominent place in British politics. Parliament was dissolved by the Marquis of Salisbury, June 28, 1892, and elections for a new House of Commons were ordered. The new elections were begun within a week after the dissolution of Parliament. The elections lasted several weeks and returned a majority of forty for the Liberals in the new House of Commons. The new Parliament convened early in August, 1892, and the Marquis of Salisbury and his Tory Ministry resigned August 18,

1892, whereupon a new Liberal Ministry under Mr. Gladstone again came into power. Thus, Mr. Gladstone, at the age of eighty-two, became Prime Minister for the fourth time.

Gladstone's Fourth Ministry.

Mr. Gladstone introduced a new Home Rule Bill into Parliament in a great speech on February 13, 1893. The new bill provided for the establishment of a local Parliament for Ireland in Dublin, while at the same time retaining Ireland's representation in the Imperial Parliament at Westminster. Protestant Ulster strenuously opposed Home Rule and threatened civil war in case of the passage of a Home Rule Bill, and serious riots occurred at Belfast, in April, 1893.

His New Irish Home Rule Bill.

On June 22, 1893, while the British Mediterranean squadron was cruising off the coast of Syria, the iron-clad battleship *Victoria* was accidentally struck by the ram *Camperdown* and sunk in a few minutes with the heroic Admiral Sir George Tryon and four hundred and sixty-seven of her crew, causing intense grief throughout England and creating a profound sensation throughout the civilized world.

Loss of the Battleship *Victoria*.

The discussion of the Irish Home Rule Bill occupied the attention of the British Parliament during the whole of the spring and summer of 1893, and the bill was finally passed by the House of Commons by the drastic application of closure, on September 3, 1893, but on September 22 the bill was rejected by the House of Lords by a vote of four hundred and nineteen to forty-one—a majority of rather more than ten to one. The action of the House of Lords in this instance was resented by the Liberal party, and Mr. Gladstone announced his intention of starting an agitation for the abolition of the House of Lords, but the proposed movement soon collapsed.

Rejection of Irish Home Rule by the House of Lords.

In the fall of 1893 the settlement of critical questions in South Africa was attended with bloodshed. For a long time trouble had been brewing between the young men of the warlike Matabele and the white settlers in Mashonaland; and in July, 1893, a Matabele raid upon the Mashonas, a timid, peaceful race, had to be repelled by force on the part of the police of the British South Africa Company. In a short time this company was at war with Lobengula, the Matabele king; and the company's force, acting in coöperation with the Bechuanaland police, under Colonel Goold-Adams, advanced in October, 1893, through a difficult and almost-unknown country upon Buluwayo. It was an anxious time for all concerned, as the Matabele king had at least fifteen thousand warriors, as brave as the Soudanese, against eight hundred British. The Matabele knew the country, and the dreaded rainy season was approaching. But in a month from the first advance, the little British force, armed with modern weapons and faultlessly led, had defeated Lobengula in several sharp encounters, had lost but very few of their number, had occupied Buluwayo, the

War with the Matabele in South Africa.

Matabele capital, and forced Lobengula to take flight. Major Forbes and Major Allan Wilson undertook to capture Lobengula. Major Wilson was overpowered and killed by a force of Matabele, December 3, 1893, but died fighting to the last. Major Forbes was attacked by the Matabele, December 8, 1893. The British South Africa Company undertook the development of the vast mineral resources of South Africa, now the richest gold district in the world.

British
Suppression
of the
Slave
Trade
in East
Africa.

In East Africa, in 1893 and in 1894, the British were actively engaged in suppressing the slave trade. Commissioner Johnston sent troops under Major C. E. Johnson and E. A. Edwards, who defeated the slave-trading tribes in Nyassaland. Two British gunboats, the *Pioneer* and the *Adventure*, in Lake Nyassa, coöperated with the land expedition. The British continued victorious over the native tribes, although the British East Africa Company had abandoned Uganda. Early in 1895 the British defeated Kawingo, a native African chief and a slave trader, who had carried off some of the people of Malemya, a friendly chief, and burned some of his villages. Kawingo's people were carried off and some of his villages were burned.

War
with the
Sofas in
West
Africa.

In West Africa the British police of Sierra Leone defeated four thousand Sofas, December 28, 1893, and that fierce tribe was chastised by the British, who took the stronghold of Chief Nana. Two fights by mistake occurred between the British under Colonel Ellis and the French of Senegambia, the French mistaking the British for Sofas during the night, December 23, 1893, and early in January, 1894. Korona, chief of Ouema, who deceived both parties, was executed by the British, February 16, 1894. The British government chartered the Royal Niger Company to trade in this region. The British defeated natives on the Niger, February 22, 1895. The Anglo-French agreement concerning the extensive Niger region was made in November, 1893.

Anti-
silver
Coinage
and
Disturbances
in
British
India.

At the close of June, 1893, the government of British India closed its mints against the free coinage of silver; the Legislative Council of British India having met at Simla for that purpose and passed an act to that effect, June 26, 1893. In the fall of 1893 serious riots occurred at Bombay, Poonah and Rangoon, between the Moham-medans and the Brahmans, and quiet was restored only when troops appeared upon the scene. Early in 1894 Lord Lansdowne was succeeded as Viceroy of British India by Lord Elgin, under whom India continued to prosper, and the various tribes in Burmah and on the north-western frontier were chastised by the military police. Some serious frontier troubles occurred in the North-west, along the Hindoo Koosh mountains, concerning the delimitation of Waziristan, causing some loss on the British side near the close of 1894.

At the beginning of 1895 a British Indian military expedition under Colonels Egerton and Turner proceeded against Waziristan and occupied the country, as the native tribes had readily submitted, while three thousand cattle were captured. The Waziris were defeated and a thousand cattle were captured soon afterward. At the beginning of February, 1895, Umra Khan of Jandol defeated the Chitralis after severe fighting and occupied Chitral without resistance. He was afterward defeated, but he captured the fort of Drosh, February 9, 1895. As Umra Khan refused to evacuate Chitral, a British expedition of fourteen thousand men under General Sir H. Low marched against him. Captain Ross and Lieutenant Jones with three hundred Cashmere, Punjab and Sikh troops proceeded to join Lieutenants Edwards and Fowler, but were attacked by natives, and a two days' fight followed, in which Captain Ross and fifty-four men were killed, March 9 and 10, 1895. Sir H. Low's expedition advanced in two columns. Two brigades stormed the Malakand Pass, defended by twelve thousand Swatis, April 3, 1895, the British losing sixty killed and wounded and the Swatis five hundred killed and wounded. Lieutenants Edwards and Fowler were cut off at Reshun and captured by Umra Khan. Captain Ross was cut off and killed. Lieutenant Parker was stabbed and severely wounded by a fanatical Mohammedan. In the meantime the Chitral fort was defended bravely by Captain Townshend and was relieved by friendly natives. Colonel Kelly was delayed by snow storms. The British drove the hostile tribesmen from the hills about Miankalai, April 17, 1895. Over a hundred British were killed and wounded during the siege. Mr. Robertson and Colonel Campbell were wounded and Captain Baird was killed. Umra Khan fled and was captured by Afghans. There were several assassinations by Ghazi fanatics during April, 1895. While the British arms had been thus engaged on the north-western frontier of India, Lieutenant Prendergast with the military police chastised the Kachins and Chins in Burmah, in January, 1895.

**British
Indian
Expedi-
tions
against
Waziris-
tan and
Chitral.**

The Manchester ship canal, connecting Manchester with Liverpool, was finished January 1, 1894, when the first cotton ship passed through; and the canal was formally opened by Queen Victoria in the presence of vast crowds, in May, 1894. In February, 1894, the House of Lords rejected the Parish Councils Bill, or Local Government Bill, as passed by the House of Commons, but afterwards passed the bill in an amended form; and this amended bill was accepted by the House of Commons and by the Ministry, and it became a law upon receiving the royal assent.

**Manches-
ter Ship
Canal.**

**Irish
Local
Govern-
ment
Bill.**

Having now entered his eighty-fifth year, Mr. Gladstone considered it advisable to retire from active public life, and early in March, 1894,

Lord
Rose-
bery as
Prime
Minister.

he resigned the office of Prime Minister, which he had now held for the fourth time, and was succeeded by his Secretary for Foreign Affairs, the eminent Scotch statesman, Archibald Philip Primrose, Earl of Rosebery, best known as Lord Rosebery, who entered upon his duties as Premier on March 5, 1894.

John
Morley's
Irish Bill
Rejected
by the
House of
Lords.

In April, 1894, John Morley introduced a bill to facilitate and make provision for the restoration of evicted tenants to their holdings in Ireland. The bill was bitterly opposed by Messrs. Balfour, Chamberlain and Carson, and it was debated for several months and finally passed by the House of Commons, only to be rejected by the House of Lords on a second reading by a vote of two hundred and forty-nine to thirty, just before the adjournment of Parliament on August 25, 1894. During this session Parliament extended local government to Scotland. The rejection, by the House of Lords, of three measures passed by the House of Commons, within a year—the Irish Home Rule Bill, the Parish Councils Bill and the Evicted Tenants Bill—caused Lord Rosebery to take up the fight for the abolition of the House of Lords, begun by Mr. Gladstone and which was characterized by Mr. Balfour as “a declaration of war against the ancient constitution of these realms.” Upon the rejection of the Evicted Tenants Bill, Lord Rosebery declared that, “with the democratic suffrage we now enjoy, a chamber so constituted is an anomaly and a danger.” The Liberal party speakers echoed and emphasized the new Prime Minister's words at many political meetings during the fall of 1894, but thus far the cry met with little response.

Lord
Salis-
bury's
Third
Ministry.

Late in June, 1895, Lord Rosebery's Ministry resigned in consequence of a vote of censure in the House of Commons, whereupon a Conservative Ministry under Lord Salisbury undertook the direction of the destinies of the British Empire. The new Ministry at once prepared to dissolve Parliament and to order an election for a new Parliament.

Election
of 1895.

The new Conservative Ministry of Lord Salisbury dissolved Parliament on July 7, 1895, and ordered an election for a new House of Commons. The election resulted in a tremendous victory for Lord Salisbury, returning a Conservative majority of over one hundred and fifty in the new House of Commons, which met soon afterward, August 12, 1895.

Pamir
Delimita-
tion.

Late in 1895 the boundaries between British India, Russian Turkestan, Chinese Turkestan and Afghanistan were clearly defined by a Joint Boundary Commission appointed by Great Britain, Russia, China and Afghanistan, so that in the future there could be no real misunderstanding as to the boundaries between the respective dominions of these four nations on the Pamirs, “the Roof of the World.”

In December, 1895, the friendly relations between Great Britain and the United States had reached a dangerous crisis as the result of a long-standing dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela concerning the boundary between British Guiana and Venezuela, President Cleveland having sent a warlike message to the United States Congress asking for authority to appoint a commission to ascertain the correct boundary in the disputed region. Congress granted the President's request; the commission was appointed, and the trouble quickly subsided, Great Britain agreeing to settle her dispute with Venezuela by arbitration, and in the fall of 1899 the boundary in dispute was settled by an arbitration tribunal at Paris.

**Venezuela
Boundary
Dispute.**

Late in 1895 and early in 1896 occurred a serious crisis in South Africa, occasioned by the proscription of the Uitlanders, or foreign settlers in the gold district of the Transvaal Republic, by the Boers, and the consequent criminal and foolish filibustering raid under Dr. Jameson into the Transvaal, ending in the defeat and surrender of the raiders and their subsequent arrest, trial, conviction and fine by the Boer authorities, Dr. Jameson being tried, convicted and imprisoned in London by the British authorities. A telegram from the Emperor William II. of Germany to President Krüger, of the Transvaal Republic, congratulating him upon the defeat of the raiders strained the relations between Great Britain and Germany, but the trouble soon subsided.

**Jameson
Raid.**

During the year 1896 the British were engaged in four little wars in Africa, the first being with the negro kingdom of Ashantee, on the Gold Coast of West Africa, with which the British had been at war so often, as in 1817, 1827 and 1873-74. Late in 1895 a British military expedition under Sir Francis Scott proceeded against the Ashantees to chastise King Prempeh for his hostile acts toward the British colony on the Gold Coast. Early in 1896 the British occupied Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, whereupon the Ashantee king submitted without resistance and accepted the British terms of peace. Two German princes married into the British royal family—Prince Henry of Battenburg and Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein—accompanied this expedition; and the former, who was the husband of the Princess Beatrice, daughter of Queen Victoria, caught the fever and died, to the great grief of the princess and the queen.

**British-
Ashantee
War.**

The second British war in Africa in 1896 was in the Egyptian Sudan against the Khalifa, the successor of El Mahdi in those regions and whose forces had made the Italian position at Kassala untenable after the disastrous defeat of the Italian army under General Baretieri by the forces of King Menelek, of Abyssinia, near Massowah, near the close of 1895. In March, 1896, a British-Egyptian military ex-

**British
War
in the
Egyptian
Sudan.**

pedition under the Sirdar, General Sir Horatio Herbert Kitchener, started from Assouan and Wady Halfa against the forces of the Khalifa and the Dervishes, who were severely defeated on June 6, 1896, with heavy loss, while the British loss was small. The British-Egyptian troops suffered severely from heat and cholera during July and August. In September the positions of the Dervishes at Kerman and Hafir were bombarded by the British artillery and by Egyptian gunboats, compelling the Dervishes to evacuate their positions and flee into the desert. The British troops and the Egyptian gunboats pushed forward, and occupied Dongola without opposition, September 23, 1896. Thus Egypt recovered a vast region from the Khalifa and the Dervishes as a result of this brilliant and decisive campaign of six months—a region which had been lost to Egypt for thirteen years as a result of El Mahdi's victories in 1883.

British-Matabele and Mashona War.

The third British war in Africa in 1896 was in the new British province of Rhodesia, named in honor of Cecil Rhodes, in Central-South Africa, where the Matabele and the Mashonas rose in revolt in April, 1896, and massacred many British families and destroyed much property. After much isolated fighting, General Sir Frederick Carrington attacked the positions of the revolted tribes in the Matoppa Hills in July, and soon afterward the revolted chiefs surrendered to Cecil Rhodes, who made a treaty with them which freed the British settlers in Rhodesia from further alarm; and that new British province was being rapidly peopled, railways being pushed on to the east and the south-west.

British War in Zanzibar.

The fourth British war in Africa in 1896 was in East Africa and was caused by a disputed succession in Zanzibar. The sudden death of Hamid bin Thwain, Sultan of Zanzibar, on August 25, 1896, led to the seizure of the Sultan's palace and its approaches by his cousin, Said Khalid, to whom the British government had refused the succession in 1893. A British fleet under Rear-Admiral Rawson soon made its appearance and landed a force of marines, and an ultimatum was presented to the usurper demanding his immediate surrender. Upon his refusal to do so the British bombarded the palace, whereupon Said Khalid fled to the German consulate, whence some weeks afterward the German authorities transferred him to German East Africa, against which action the British consul protested.

Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.

The great event of the year 1897 in England was the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria on July 22d and 23d, celebrating the close of the first sixty years of the beloved queen's reign, which was already longer than any other reign in English history. On the first day of the Jubilee there was a great procession in London in which not only the United Kingdom, but the whole British Empire, was repre-

sented, the Prime Ministers of the various British colonies throughout the world occupying a conspicuous position. After the first day the queen reviewed ten thousand school children; gave a garden party at Buckingham Palace and numerous receptions at Windsor Castle; held a grand military review at Aldershot on July 1st, and finally closed the magnificent celebration by a letter to the British Empire, in which the queen expressed her most heartfelt thanks to her subjects in her worldwide dominions for their loyalty and affection and her well wishes for their happiness and prosperity. For three nights London and the other great cities of Great Britain were brilliantly illuminated, and on Jubilee night bonfires blazed on every hill. On June 26th the Prince of Wales reviewed the British fleet at Spithead.

Besides the great Diamond Jubilee, the year 1897 was signalized by many misfortunes in the British Empire's most populous province; British India having suffered from a great variety of calamities—war, pestilence, famine, earthquake, local disturbances, etc. The famine affected about thirty-seven million people. The Bubonic plague also caused frightful ravages. The province of Assam was devastated by a destructive earthquake. Calcutta was the scene of serious riots between the Brahmans and the Mohammedans; and the Hindoo press indulged in seditious language, which led to several prosecutions, convictions, imprisonment and more drastic legislation by the Viceroy and the Legislative Council for the punishment of seditious utterances.

British
India's
Misfor-
tunes.

The war of the British in India with the Waziris around Chitral, on the north-western frontier of India, still continued. In June, 1897, the Waziris made a treacherous attack on a British political officer and his escort in the Tochi valley. Six weeks later—July 26, 1897—a sudden and more serious rising of the Moslems occurred in the Swat valley, as a result of the preaching of a certain "Mad Mullah" against the British. The warlike tribes made a night attack on Malakand, which had a British garrison of three thousand men, and for a time cut off the fort of Chakdara, which was garrisoned by three hundred British Indian troops. These British garrisons bravely resisted many night attacks until relieved by a British Indian force of eight thousand men under Sir Bindon Blood, at whose approach the tribesmen dispersed and returned to their homes. But other risings occurred, the most serious being that under another Mullah in the Mohmand country, near Peshawur, which was suppressed by General Elles with some difficulty; while Sir Bindon Blood had to fight some severe actions in the Swat valley.

Continued
War in
Chitral.

The British Indian government had to encounter a still more serious rising on the north-western frontier than those of the tribes mentioned in the preceding paragraph. The outbreak of two powerful Afghan

War with
Afghan
Tribes.

tribes south of the Khyber Pass—the Afreedees and the Orakrais—who always had been turbulent, not even the liberal allowances paid them by the British being sufficient to keep them quiet. The British Indian government sent forty thousand men against the Afreedees, who took Fort Ali Musjid, at the eastern end of the Khyber Pass, and who captured the small fort of Landi Khotal, in the same pass, late in August, 1897. After an arduous campaign in the fall of 1897 the offending Afreedees, who had seized two forts which they had been paid to defend, were severely chastised by a British Indian expedition under General Sir William Lockhart, the Gordon Highlanders performing a brilliant exploit in the storming and capture of Dargai, and Lieutenant Macintire and his twelve men of the Northampton Regiment meeting a heroic death because they would not desert their comrades.

**Canada's
New
Commer-
cial
Policy.**

The year 1897 was also distinguished for a new commercial policy in Canada in its relations to the Mother Country, the Canadian tariff on imports from the Mother Country being largely reduced, thus giving preference to imports from Great Britain—a result which was due to Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the new Prime Minister of Canada and the leader of the Canadian Liberal party, which had carried the Canadian elections in 1896, the Conservative party being driven from power in the Dominion for the first time in many years. Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, Secretary for the Colonies in Lord Salisbury's Ministry, thus inaugurated a new commercial policy which was the initiative of a change in a more liberal direction in the relations between Great Britain and her colonies. The queen's Diamond Jubilee furnished evidences of the sentiment of unity in the widely-scattered British Empire, which spirit of unity was put to a severe test a few years later, as we shall see presently. Canada had enjoyed great prosperity during the year 1897, an important event within her wide domain during that year being the immense gold discoveries in the Klondike region of the extreme Canadian North-west, which caused a stream of emigration to flow to that region.

**British
Wars in
West
Africa.**

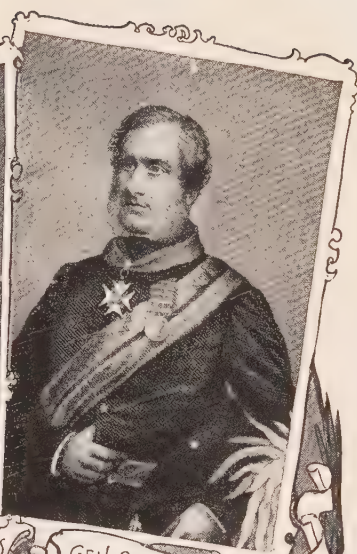
In West Africa during 1897 the British waged two little wars with barbarous native tribes. On the west coast of Africa the soldiers of the King of Benin massacred a peaceful party of Englishmen, in consequence of which a small British military expedition chastised the offending natives, capturing the King of Benin and his capital and putting an end to his horrible tyranny, which had given the city of Benin the significant name of "the city of blood." A small military expedition of the Royal Niger Company, consisting of British and natives, numbering five hundred and thirty-five men, captured Bida, one of the chief towns of the Fulahs in the vicinity of the Niger, which



FIELD-MARSHAL LORD RAGLAN



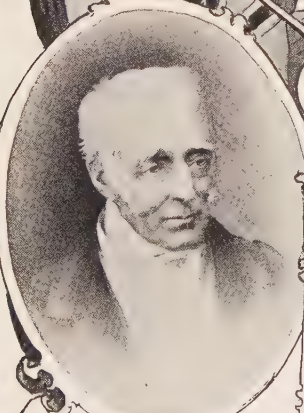
FIELD-MARSHAL LORD ROBERTS



GEN. SIR HENRY HAVELOCK



ADM. LORD NELSON



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON



GEN. C. G. GORDON



GEN. LORD KITCHENER

GREAT ENGLISH SOLDIERS

was defended by a Fulah army of thirty thousand men, thus ending a slave-raiding tyranny which for a long time had wrought havoc over a rich and once-populous region. As the Niger country was the meeting point of the British and French spheres of influence, some disputes arose between Great Britain and France relative to that region, for the settlement of which negotiations were opened at Paris.

The year 1898 was distinguished as the year when England and Germany each lost her greatest statesman of recent times. After a lingering illness of some months, the Rt. Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, "the Grand Old Man," who had been the most celebrated British statesman of the last half of the nineteenth century and who had been Prime Minister four times and had carried through many beneficent reforms in the interest of popular freedom and enlightenment, passed away at the ripe old age of eighty-eight, at his home at Hawarden, May 19, 1898—a few months before Prince Bismarck's death at Friedrichsruhe, Germany, July 30, 1898.

The most important event in the history of the British Empire during the year 1898 was the recovery of the Upper Nile region for Egypt by the British-Egyptian expedition under General Kitchener through its great victory at Omdurman. The advance of a French expedition under Marchand into the Upper Nile region hastened decisive action on the part of Lord Cromer, the British Commissioner in Egypt; and the Sirdar, General Kitchener, at once advanced upon Khartoum; so that international complications were threatened in the form of an Anglo-French rupture.

Early in 1898 Colonel Parsons arrived at Kassala and captured the positions of the Dervishes at El Fashir and Osobri; and before the middle of March the Sirdar, General Kitchener, with fourteen thousand British and Egyptian troops, had established his headquarters at Berber, and his troops occupied a strong position extending from Berber to the Atbara river. At Shendy, Mahmoud, the Khalifa's best general, had massacred six thousand men, women and children who had repudiated the Khalifa's authority. After a number of skirmishes, Mahmoud was defeated with heavy loss and taken prisoner in the battle of Atbara on Good Friday, thus clearing the whole desert of the Khalifa's troops, who thereafter concentrated at Omdurman, on the Nile, opposite Khartoum. After vast preparations General Kitchener's Anglo-Egyptian army completely annihilated the Khalifa's army in the great battle of Omdurman, September 2, 1898, the British and Egyptians losing less than four hundred men killed and wounded, while the loss of the Khalifa's troops amounted to many thousands. The most prominent British officers under General Kitchener were Generals Hunter and Gatacre and Colonels Wauchope, Lyttleton, Mar-

Illus-
trious
Dead.

General
Kitch-
ener's
Soudan
Cam-
paign.

Battles of
Atbara
and Om-
durman

tin and Hector A. Macdonald. Kitchener's victorious troops immediately occupied Omdurman. Two days later—Sunday, September 4, 1898—General Kitchener proceeded to the ruins of Khartoum, where, in the lamented Gordon's own palace, the British Union Jack and the Egyptian Crescent were unfurled, a salute was fired and an impressive religious service was held in memory of the dead hero; after which El Mahdi's tomb was destroyed, to obliterate every memory of Mahdism. Thus Mahdism was utterly destroyed and Egyptian authority was restored throughout the whole Nile region.

**The
Fashoda
Incident.**

A few days after General Kitchener's victory at Omdurman a Dervish steamer descended the Nile from the south and surrendered to the Egyptian authorities at Omdurman, the captain of the steamer reporting that a few days before the arrival of the Anglo-Egyptian army the Khalifa had been informed that a force of white men had occupied Fashoda. He had sent two of his steamers to investigate; and they had found the report to be correct, had been fired upon and had come back for reinforcements. An examination disclosed the presence of many French bullets in the hull of the steamer. Immediately General Kitchener himself proceeded up the Nile with four gunboats and a considerable military force, and on September 21st he arrived at Fashoda, where he discovered the tricolor waving in the breeze. Evidently an international incident of extreme gravity was transpiring—an incident which, as shown by the sequel, could not be settled then and there, but was destined to arouse the British nation to its depths. Major Marchand, with a half-dozen French officers and a hundred Senegalese troops, had crossed the country from French Kongo to the Nile region. Though it was General Kitchener's duty to request Major Marchand to evacuate the dominions of the Khedive of Egypt, and though it was Major Marchand's duty to decline to do so without orders to that effect from his government, the two military representatives of their respective nations treated each other with the utmost courtesy and civility, Major Marchand politely refusing to comply with General Kitchener's polite request to withdraw. As Major Marchand declined to move, General Kitchener "peacefully established posts at Fashoda and Sobat and withdrew to Omdurman," whence he communicated with Lord Cromer in Egypt and with the British home government in London.

**British-
French
Diplo-
macy
about
Fashoda.**

The settlement of the Fashoda episode as told in the official dispatches of the time, as published by Lord Salisbury on October 9, 1898, recognized that he was sustained by the British nation and that it was highly important that France should know that such was the case. The Blue Book showed that successive French Ministries had been informed of Great Britain's resolution not to admit "that any

other European power than Great Britain has any claim to occupy any part of the valley of the Nile," as stated in a communication made by Sir Edmund Monson, the British ambassador at Paris, to M. Hanotaux on December 10, 1897, followed by Sir Edward Grey's declaration in Parliament that Great Britain would consider such an occupation to be "an unfriendly act." Sir Edmund Monson's phrase was quoted by Lord Salisbury in his dispatch to Lord Cromer dated August 2, 1898, containing instructions as to what General Kitchener was to do after he occupied Khartoum, and almost half the dispatch deals with the question of what should be done by General Kitchener if he should meet any French or Abyssinian authorities in his southward journey. In that case Lord Salisbury wrote that "nothing should be said or done which would in any way imply a recognition on behalf of Her Majesty's government of a title to possession on behalf of France or Abyssinia of any portion of the Nile valley." In an interview with Sir Edmond Monson, M. Delcassé, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that Major Marchand had been instructed to consider himself "an emissary of civilization" without any authority whatever to decide upon questions of right. In another interview with Sir Edmund Monson, "M. Delcassé laid stress upon there being no Marchand mission at all." A telegram from Lord Salisbury to Sir Edmund Monson on September 9th instructed him to inform M. Delcassé that "by the military events of last week all the territories which were subject to the Khalifa passed by the right of conquest to the British and Egyptian governments," and that "Her Majesty's government do not consider that this right is open to discussion."

The diplomacy on the Fashoda episode lasted two entire months and was marked throughout by firmness on the part of Great Britain, and Lord Salisbury never swerved from his course in this affair, in which he was supported heartily by the British nation, even by the leaders of the Liberal party, foremost of whom was Lord Rosebery, who in a speech at a meeting of the Surrey agriculturists in the middle of October uttered the following words: "Great Britain has been conciliatory, and her conciliatory disposition has been widely misunderstood. If the nations of the world are under the impression that the ancient spirit of Great Britain is dead or that her resources are weakened or her population less determined than ever it was to maintain the rights and honor of its flag, they make a mistake which can only end in a disastrous conflagration." At the same time quiet and effective measures of defense were put in operation, and finally France retired from her position, seeing that Great Britain was in earnest. The news of this decision of the French government was announced by Lord Salisbury at the Lord Mayor's banquet in honor of General Kitchener

**Close of
Fashoda
Episode.**

on November 4th, the general having been raised to the peerage in the meantime with the title of *Lord Kitchener of Khartoum*. This affair was brought to a pacific solution with less trouble than might have been anticipated, in view of all the circumstances of the case, as the French press was not unanimous in support of Major Marchand's adventure.

Agree-
ment
with
France.

In March, 1899, an agreement between Great Britain and France as to the delimitation of their respective spheres of influence in Africa made another affair like the Fashoda incident impossible, and public opinion in both countries was satisfied, though it was not wholly satisfactory to the Sultan of Turkey, who considered it a veiled attack on his suzerainty over Tripoli, or to Italy, which has well-recognized interests in that quarter of the world.

Final
Over-
throw
of the
Khalifa.

The battle of Omdurman, September 2, 1898, had struck the death-blow to Mahdism. Early in 1899 Colonel Lewis, with British and Egyptian troops, attacked and defeated Ahmed Fedil, one of the Khalifa's remaining supporters, about four hundred miles south of Khartoum. Lord Cromer visited Omdurman and laid the corner-stone of Gordon Memorial College, and the Duke and Duchess of Connaught afterward went there and held a review of nine thousand Anglo-Egyptian troops. Late in November, 1899 a finishing-touch was put to the cause of Mahdism by Sir F. Wingate's decisive victory over the forces of the Khalifa near Gedid, on the White Nile; the Khalifa having attacked Wingate's force, with the result that his army was utterly destroyed and himself killed, he and his emirs and dervishes meeting death with the courage and dignity of Oriental fanatics, thus extinguishing the last relics of Mahdism.

Samoan
Troubles
and
Settle-
ment.

In March and April, 1899, there was trouble in the Samoan Islands, in the South Pacific, in consequence of a long-standing disputed succession to the kingship of the islands, one of the native factions being sustained by Germany and the other by Great Britain and the United States. An open rebellion of the faction supported by the German consul Rose led to several bombardments of Apia, the Samoan capital, by British and American warships; but the trouble was soon adjusted, and in November, 1899, Great Britain entered into a treaty with Germany and the United States by which she relinquished all political control in the islands to those two nations, receiving in exchange from Germany the Tonga, or Friendly Islands, in the South Pacific.

Troubles
in South
Africa.

In 1899 the long-standing troubles between the British and the Transvaal Boers were rapidly approaching a crisis. President Krüger had always been restive under his vassalage to the British crown, as provided in the treaty of 1881 restoring the independence of the Transvaal Republic, and as reaffirmed in the London Convention of 1884 on

the occasion of his visit to the British capital and metropolis; and his jealous fear of the preponderance in numbers of the British settlers in the Transvaal, who immigrated into that Republic in overwhelming numbers after the discovery of the Witwatersrand gold mines in 1886, caused him much anxiety and alarm and induced him and his Volksraad to enact very discriminating and disqualifying laws, throwing obstacles in the way of their naturalization and their consequent political enfranchisement; and these Uitlanders, or "Outlanders," were the victims of ceaseless persecution and much petty annoyance, making their situation intolerable.

The direct troubles between the British and the Boers were those alluded to in the preceding paragraph, but the underlying causes were a century old. Dutch colonists had settled at the Cape of Good Hope in 1652 and were under the government of Holland until the Napoleonic wars, when British conquest in 1806 and the treaty of peace in 1815 transferred the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope to Great Britain, which fortified her claim to the Cape Colony by the payment of six million pounds sterling, equal to thirty million American dollars, to Holland for her territorial claims in South Africa. The Dutch colonists had always been rebellious during their subjection to their mother land, and they did not like the transfer to British sovereignty any better, though they had more political liberty under British than they had under Dutch rule. The abolition of slavery in the British colonies by act of the British Parliament in 1833 angered the Boers, as these Dutch farmers in the Cape Colony were called, though they were compensated for their slaves. This emancipation of their slaves, with the advent of British settlers in the Cape Colony, caused six thousand Boers to leave the Cape Colony in 1836-37 by going on the "Great Trek," as it was called, and settling in the British colony of Natal, where they established the "Republic of Natalia," which the British never recognized, and after wars with the natives and the British and the "Napier Treaties" in 1843, the Boers went on other treks and migrations and settled in the regions beyond the Orange and Vaal rivers, still within the limits of British jurisdiction. The Transvaal Boers resisted the British, but were defeated in the battle of Boomplatz, August 29, 1848, and reduced to submission.

Great Britain, by the Sand River Convention in 1852, acknowledged the independence of the Transvaal Republic; and, by the Bloemfontein Convention of 1854, she recognized the independence of the Orange Free State, against the wishes of the Orange River Boers, whom the British compelled to accept independence against their will. The Orange Free State thereafter prospered and many British colonists settled within its limits. The Transvaal Republic was continually in-

Long-
standing
Ani-
mosity.

The
Boer Re-
publics.

volved in civil wars among its own people and at one time split up into four miniature republics after a long war of secession. The Transvaal was also engaged in a twelve years' war with her sister republic, the Orange Free State, and was also continually engaged in bloody wars with the Kaffirs, the Zulus and the other negro tribes of South Africa, in consequence of the massacres of negro natives and the kidnapping of negroes for slaves by the Boers. The refusal of the Boers to pay taxes to their own government well-nigh bankrupted the Transvaal, and the negro native tribes attacked the Republic on all sides and had it at their mercy. So desperate were the straits of the Transvaal Boers that they certainly would have been annihilated and wholly exterminated by the exasperated negro tribes, whom they had outraged and whose people they had massacred or kidnapped into slavery, had not the British come to their rescue at their piteous appeals for help and placed them under British protection by annexation of the Transvaal to British South Africa in 1877. This British rescue of the Boers also involved the British in their bloody war with the Zulus in 1879, which cost the British eight million pounds sterling (about forty million dollars), all on account of the Boers.

The
Second
Trans-
vaal
Republic.

The Transvaal prospered greatly under British rule, and the British aided the Boers financially in improving their farms and adopted many measures for their improvement; but in three years the Boers grew tired of British subjection, and late in 1880 they revolted, and won three great victories over the British troops under General Colley, who was defeated and killed at Majuba Hill, the last of these three battles, February 27, 1881, after which the British government under Mr. Gladstone granted the Transvaal Boers independence under British suzerainty. Then arose the second Transvaal Republic under Johannes Stephanus Paulus Krüger, who was President of the restored Transvaal Republic during the whole nineteen years of its existence, 1881-1900. The second Transvaal Republic, like the first, was soon involved in troubles with the Kaffirs, the Zulus and the other negro tribes by kidnapping their people into slavery, in violation of their treaty with the British in 1881, by which they recovered their independence; and the Transvaal Boers made six raids into the negro states around them to seize their territories—raids of the same character as the Jameson raid against the Boers themselves in 1895-96. The London Convention of 1884, which President Krüger negotiated with the British government, settled certain questions for the time; but, as we have observed, the discovery of the Witwatersrand gold mines in 1886 brought hitherto-unforeseen troubles, as it both enriched the Transvaal and proved its curse, causing a large influx of British settlers with a sprinkling of other foreigners, French, Americans, Ger-

mans, etc.; and the city of Johannesburg, the "Golden Reef City," sprang up as by magic, its population growing to over a hundred thousand in six years (1890-1896), more than the entire Boer population of the two Republics and more than twice the Boer population of the Transvaal. The two Boer Republics had an area as large as New York and Pennsylvania with a Boer population of less than a hundred thousand.

The Uitlanders, or British and other foreign settlers in the Transvaal, although outnumbering the Boers therein more than two to one, paid nine-tenths of the taxes and were subject to military duty in the service of the Republic, but were deprived of all political rights and could be naturalized as citizens of the Republic only after a residence of a long series of years and much trouble. A reform party arose among the Uitlanders which demanded political rights and more easy naturalization; and this party contemplated a rising late in December, 1895, in which they were to be aided by British raiders from the outside under Dr. Jameson; but these raiders were defeated, and Dr. Jameson was taken prisoner and afterwards turned over to the British government and tried and imprisoned in London. The leaders of the reform party at Johannesburg, among whom was an American, John Hays Hammond, of California, were tried for treason and were convicted, fined and imprisoned. The troubles between the Boers and Uitlanders continued. Though Johannesburg had over a hundred thousand inhabitants, only its one thousand Boer citizens had political rights and were the rulers of the city, oppressing the Uitlanders, who contended that they were asserting the principle of "no taxation without representation." These people were subjected to many annoyances, and their situation was made as irksome as possible, so that in the spring of 1899 they sent a petition with over twenty-one thousand signatures to Queen Victoria praying for relief from their intolerable situation. Negotiations for the next six months followed between President Krüger and British Colonial Secretary Joseph Chamberlain for the enactment of more liberal naturalization laws in the Transvaal, and in May a conference between President Krüger and Sir Alfred Milner, Governor of Cape Colony and British High Commissioner in South Africa, was held at Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, but without a result; and negotiations for the settlement of the questions at issue continued between the Transvaal President and the British authorities until the next fall, when the final rupture came.

During September, 1899, the relations between the British government and the Transvaal Republic became greatly strained, and a very little spark was needed to kindle a conflagration. Great Britain would not relinquish her suzerainty claims, and President Krüger was de-

The Uitlanders.

The Real Issue.

terminated to release himself from this vassalage. The suzerainty question and the British paramountcy question now overshadowed all franchise proposals and all counter proposals, the former questions eventually becoming the real issue, all British imperialists now recognizing that the continued existence of the British Empire itself was at stake; but Great Britain disclaimed any design of annexing the Transvaal.

**War
Prepara-
tions.**

In the meantime both parties were making active military preparations and hurrying troops to the front. Uitlanders fled in crowds from Johannesburg. The Boers were making ready for a sudden invasion of Natal; and the British Ministry was making haste to transport a large military force to South Africa, twenty-five thousand troops being immediately ordered to their colors, while General Sir Redvers Henry Buller was appointed to the chief command of the British forces in South Africa. In pursuance of a British order-in-council, a royal proclamation was issued for the summoning of Parliament and the mobilization of the reserves.

**Boer
Ulti-
matum
and
British
Reply.**

Finally, on October 9, 1899, the Transvaal government handed an ultimatum to Mr. Conyngham Greene, the British agent at Pretoria, the Transvaal capital, demanding that all the disputed questions be submitted to arbitration or any other amicable course; that the British troops on the Transvaal frontiers be withdrawn instantly, and that all British reinforcements that had arrived in South Africa since June 1, 1899, or which were en route thither be recalled immediately; the Transvaal government declaring that any failure on the part of the British government to comply with these demands before 5 p. m. on October 11th would be regarded by the Transvaal as a formal British declaration of war. In reply to the Boer ultimatum, the British government stated that the peremptory demands of the Transvaal Republic were such as it was impossible to discuss. Mr. Conyngham Greene, the British agent, left Pretoria on the day set for the expiration of the time fixed by the ultimatum, starting for Cape Town. On the same day President Steyn, of the Orange Free State, issued a proclamation to his people, in which he denounced Great Britain and called upon them to fight that power. Thus the two Boer Republics jointly declared war against Great Britain. On the same day—October 11, 1899—both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State forces invaded British territory by passing the frontiers on both the east and the west, thus commencing aggressive military operations while the British were still unprepared, the Boers in the field being three times as numerous as the British troops in South Africa at that time.

**Boer
Declara-
tion of
War and
Invasion.**

Thus the war was declared and begun by the Transvaal and not by Great Britain. It was begun by the invasion of the British colonies

of South Africa by the Boers and not by the invasion of the Boer Republics by the British. We will give merely a skeleton outline of the most important events of this great war in this connection, reserving a detailed record of this mighty struggle for another portion of this work. There was almost daily fighting over a vast area.

The Boer invaders seemed to carry all before them, as they had four times as many troops as the British on the scene of action when the war commenced. In the east the Boers quickly overran a large part of Natal; and after a victory at Glencoe on October 20, 1899, where the British General Sir William Penn Symons was mortally wounded, they were defeated at Elands-laagte the next day by the British under General French. The British under General Sir George Stewart White were at once besieged in Ladysmith, and the siege lasted over four months, during which the city was constantly bombarded and three desperate attempts to relieve it failed. On October 24, 1899, General White defeated the Boers at Reitfontein; but on October 30, 1899, the Boers captured the Royal Irish Fusiliers at Nicholson's Nek.

On their western frontiers the Boers also invaded Cape Colony and British Bechuanaland; and Kimberley, the seat of the Diamond fields, and Mafeking, an outpost town on a South African prairie, two hundred miles north of Kimberley, were both besieged and bombarded by Boer invaders. Cecil Rhodes was in Kimberley at the time, and the city was defended by a small garrison under Colonel Kekewich for four months. Mafeking was gallantly defended by a small British garrison under Colonel Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell, who held out heroically for seven months before he was relieved.

Orange Free State Boers crossed the Orange River into Cape Colony and overran a large area; and for months there was considerable fighting with various results around Colesburg and Rensburg, General French commanding the British in that region. On the western frontier for months Colonels Pilcher and Plumer were operating against the Boers.

In the meantime British troops from Great Britain and her colonies of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and British India were hurried to South Africa. Great Britain was loyally supported by public sentiment at home and in her colonies throughout the world. Popular sentiment outside of the worldwide British Empire was against Great Britain, though the various governments observed neutrality and obstinately refused to intervene.

In the north of Cape Colony the British under General Lord Methuen defeated the Boers under General Cronje in the great battles of Belmont, Graspan and Modder River, November 22-23, 25 and 28, 1899. In December the British met with three great disasters in dif-

**Opening
of the
Great
British-
Boer
War.**

**Battles of
Glencoe
and
Elands-
laagte.**

**Siege of
Ladys-
smith.**

**Sieges of
Kim-
berley
and
Mafeking.**

**Battles of
Colesburg
and
Rensburg.**

**Patriotic
British
Senti-
ment.**

**Battles of
Belmont
Graspan,
and
Modder
River.**

Battles of Stormberg, Magersfontein and Colenso. ferent quarters—General Sir William Forbes Gatacre being defeated at Stormberg Junction, in northern Cape Colony, on December 10; General Lord Methuen being defeated at Magersfontein, on the Modder River, where General Wanchope, commander of the Highland Brigade, was killed, December 11; and General Sir Redvers Henry Buller being defeated at Colenso in trying to force a passage over the Tugela River to relieve Ladysmith, December 15.

Great Britain's Resolution.

The three great British disasters to which we have alluded greatly depressed the British, but made them more resolute than ever in prosecuting the war. A wave of patriotism swept over Great Britain and her colonies, and in the course of a few months over a hundred thousand British volunteers were sent to the scene of war, and by the spring of 1900 about a quarter million British soldiers were in South Africa. Never before had any nation ever sent such a large army so many thousands of miles by water. This immense force was required not only to fight, but also to guard many hundreds of miles of communication. The two British commanders next in rank to the British commander-in-chief, Lord Wolesley, were sent to take command of the forces intended for the invasion of the Boer Republics from the Modder River district of Cape Colony. These were Field-Marshal Lord Frederick Sleigh Roberts of Kandahar and Waterford, British commander-in-chief in India, and Major-General Lord Horatio Herbert Kitchener, late British commander in the Egyptian Soudan, who had crushed the Mohammedan dervishes by his great victory at Omdurman, September 2, 1898. The three leading British commanders—Lords Wolseley, Roberts and Kitchener—were all Irishmen. Most of the British generals in South Africa were either Irishmen or Scotchmen.

Lords Roberts and Kitchener.

Battles of Ladysmith, Spion Kop and Vaal Franiz.

The Boers under General Joubert were repulsed in an attempt to take Ladysmith by storm, January 6, 1900. After a week's fighting, the British under General Buller were severely repulsed in a second attempt to relieve Ladysmith, General Warren having captured and lost Spion Kop, a precipitous height, January 23-24, and General Sir Edward Woodgate being mortally wounded; but Lord Dundonald's cavalry defeated the Boers west of Acton Homes, January 17. After four days' fighting, during which General Buller had crossed the Tugela River in a third attempt to relieve Ladysmith, he was again repulsed after he had taken Vaal Krantz, which he held against the Boer attacks, February 8.

Battles of Sunnyside, Ramonsta and Koodoesberg Drift.

Important events in other quarters were the repulse of the Boers at Sunnyside, in the Modder River district, near Kimberley, by Colonel Pilcher's force, largely Canadians, Australians and New Zealanders, on New Year's Day, 1900. In the north, on the Rodesian frontier, Kuruman was captured by the Boers, who also repulsed Colonel

Plumer's attack near Ramonsta, on February 2, 1900. The Highland Bridge, under General Hector A. MacDonald, was defeated by the Boers at Koodoesberg Drift, on the Modder River, MacDonald himself being severely wounded.

Thus far the war had been fought on British territory, the Boer invaders being generally victorious. This period of Boer invasion and Boer successes was followed by a period of British invasion of Boer territory and British successes.

Early in February, 1900, Field-Marshal Lord Roberts began the invasion of the Orange Free State by way of the Modder River district of Cape Colony; while General French, after fighting his way northward, finally relieved Kimberley, February 14, 1900, to the great joy of the besieged inhabitants. After ten days' fighting around Paardeberg, General Cronje surrendered with four thousand Boers to Lord Roberts, February 27, 1900, the nineteenth anniversary of the Boer victory of Majuba Hill. On the same day General Buller's troops captured Pieter's Hill after many days' fighting, and relieved Ladysmith the next day, February 28, 1899, amid the rejoicings of its people. The relief of Kimberley and Ladysmith and the surrender of Cronje caused great rejoicings in England and throughout the British Empire.

Lords Roberts and Kitchener followed up their victory by the capture of Bloemfontein, the Orange Free State capital, March 13, 1900, and by other successes. Presidents Krüger and Steyn now made peace overtures to Great Britain and asked for the mediation of President McKinley; but Lord Salisbury rejected all mediation and all overtures except on terms of Boer submission, as the Boers had begun the war by an insolent ultimatum.

Lord Roberts's troops pushed on and captured Kronstad, the new Free State capital. After much fighting around Wepener, Dewetsdorp and Thabanchu in March and April, 1900, the besieged British garrison under Colonel Dalgety at Wepener was finally relieved on April 24th by the British forces under Generals Brabant, Hart, French, Rundle, Chermiside and Pole-Carew.

Meanwhile Mafeking had been closely invested and besieged by the Boers for seven months, during which the brave little British garrison under Colonel Baden-Powell had held out heroically, the garrison being reduced from two thousand men to about two hundred and refusing every demand for surrender, thus making its gallant commandant the real hero of the war. British relief expeditions had been on the way to relieve the beleaguered little outpost for many months, and finally the relief expedition under Colonel Mahon reached Mafeking about the middle of May, 1900, and relieved its heroic commandant and his

**Turn
in the
Tide of
War.**

**Invasion
of the
Orange
Free
State.**

**Cronje's
Surrender.**

**Relief of
Kimberley
and Ladysmith.**

**Capture
of Bloemfontein.**

**Peace
Overtures.**

**Relief of
Wepener.**

**Relief of
Mafeking.**

Colonel
Baden-
Powell.

brave little garrison, after a very spirited action, in which the heroic garrison participated by making a spirited sally, May 17th. Colonel Baden-Powell was rewarded for his gallant defense of seven months against tremendous odds by being promoted to the well-merited rank of Major-General.

Occupa-
tion of
Johannes-
burg and
Pretoria.

Lord Roberts continued his march northward through the Orange Free State and invaded the Transvaal late in May, 1900; and after severe fighting his forces occupied Johannesburg, the "Golden Reef City," May 31, 1900, and Pretoria, the Transvaal capital, June 5, 1900. President Krüger fled on the approach of the invaders and proceeded to Waterwelboven, and thence by rail to Lorenzo Marques, in Portuguese South-east Africa, whence he finally sailed for Europe, arriving at Marseilles, France, on November 22, 1900, and meeting with enthusiastic popular receptions in Marseilles and Paris, and afterwards in Holland; but his former friend, the Emperor William II. of Germany, refused to receive him. In May, 1900, three Boer delegates visited the United States, where they received ovations from their sympathizers; but they were given only an unofficial reception by President McKinley. In the meantime the British had formally annexed the Transvaal as the *Vaal River Colony* and the Orange Free State as the *Orange River Colony*.

President
Krüger's
Flight.

Krüger in
Europe.

Boer
Delegates
in
America.

Guerrilla
Warfare.

After the British occupation of Johannesburg and Pretoria and the flight of President Krüger from his capital General Louis Botha succeeded him as President of the Transvaal. The active power of the Boers had now passed away, though the two Generals Botha, the two Generals DeWet and other Transvaal leaders, along with President Steyn, of the Orange Free State, continued the struggle for two years longer. During these two years the war was wholly of a guerrilla character, and there were constant struggles between small bands of British and Boers, the most active and enterprising of the Boer leaders being DeWet, who performed some remarkable feats. The great result of the war was to strengthen the British Empire, the various British colonies throughout the world loyally supporting the Mother Country; Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the British colonies in South Africa fully attesting their devotion to their parent state.

Imperial
Unity.

Fifth
British-
Ashantee
War.

Besides the great war with the Boers, the British waged another war in Africa in 1900—their fifth war with the Ashantees. In the spring of the year the British governor of the Gold Coast, Sir Frederick Hodgson, visited the little British garrison at Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, in search of the Golden Stool, the celebrated badge of Ashantee sovereignty, but failed to find it. A formidable Ashantee revolt at once broke out; and the British governor and his wife, along with the small British garrison, were besieged by thousands of

Ashantees, many of them well armed. After a siege of many weeks, the governor and his wife and the garrison made a successful sortie and got through to Acera, where they arrived July 11, 1900, after extreme suffering, having lost all their baggage, having had to live on plantains and having had to wade as high as their shoulders through a great river for two hours. In the meantime a British relief expedition under Colonel Willcocks reached Coomassie, after having traveled through bad roads, and captured the strong Ashantee position at the point of the bayonet. After considerably more fighting in other portions of Ashantee, the whole of that negro kingdom was pacified in the course of a few weeks, and peace again prevailed in that section.

Besides her wars in Africa with the Boers and the Ashantees, Great Britain was engaged in another struggle in 1900, taking part with France, Italy, Germany, Russia, Japan and the United States in suppressing the Boxer outbreak against the "foreign devils" in China and in rescuing the besieged legations of these nations in Peking. After an ineffectual expedition under Admiral Seymour in June, 1900, Great Britain and the other nations above mentioned organized an expedition against the Chinese to rescue their beleaguered legations. In the meantime the Boxers—as the Chinese who had risen against the Christian missionaries and other foreigners in China were called—had made such headway that the Chinese imperial government was unable or unwilling to cope with them, and had massacred large numbers of foreign missionaries and Chinese Christians and had murdered Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister in Peking. In July, 1900, the allies bombarded the Taku forts and Tien-tsin, and after several bloody battles they forced their way to Peking, which they entered August 14, 1900, after having carried its walls by storm, the British and American troops being under the command of the British General Gaselee. After thus rescuing their beleaguered legations in the Chinese capital the allied powers placed their military forces in China under the chief command of the German Count von Waldersee and prepared to crush the Boxer outbreak thoroughly. After several months of negotiation with the Chinese imperial court, which had fled several hundred miles into the interior of China on the approach of the allied forces to Peking, the allied powers secured the payment of a large indemnity and other concessions by treaty, while some of the Boxer leaders were beheaded as a punishment for their bloody massacres of foreign missionaries and native Chinese Christians.

The greatest measure of Parliament during the session of 1900 was the Australian Commonwealth Bill, by which the British colonies in Australia were confederated under one general government, the union

**Relief
Expedi-
tion in
China.**

**Common-
wealth of
Australia.**

to be known as *The Commonwealth of Australia*, in imitation of the Dominion of Canada, each of the Australian colonies retaining its own local government, with a colonial governor, a colonial assembly and a colonial ministry, but all being united under a federal democratic government, whose executive was a Governor-General, appointed by the British crown, and whose general legislature was a Commonwealth Parliament, consisting of a Senate, representing the several Australian colonies and its members being chosen by the several colonial assemblies, and a House of Representatives, representing the Australian people and its members being elected by the Australian voters, the Commonwealth Parliament thus resembling the United States Congress; while the judicial power of the new Commonwealth was vested in a Court of Appeals and in inferior courts. The new Commonwealth of Australia was inaugurated in the beginning of May, 1901, the British crown being represented on the occasion by the then-heir to the throne, the new Prince of Wales, the grandson of Queen Victoria, who had died in the meantime and had been succeeded on her throne by her son, King Edward VII. The first Commonwealth Parliament of Australia was opened by the young heir to the throne. The first Governor-General of the new Commonwealth of Australia was the Earl of Hopetoun, who resigned in 1902 and was succeeded by the second Lord Tennyson, son of the famous Poet-Laureate, Lord Alfred Tennyson. The first Prime Minister of the Australian Commonwealth was Mr. Barton, the greatest statesman of Australia. In 1902 Australia gave the right of suffrage to its eight hundred thousand women, thus proving itself the most advanced democracy in the world.

Election of 1900.

Parliament was prorogued August 8, 1900, and was finally dissolved September 17th following, by the queen's proclamation signed at Balmoral. The elections which soon followed resulted in a decisive victory for Lord Salisbury's Ministry, which was thus sustained by British public sentiment in the return of an overwhelming majority in the New House of Commons by a decisive majority of the voters of the United Kingdom. In the new House of Commons the Conservatives and Liberal Unionists had four hundred and two members; while the Opposition, consisting of Liberals, Labor party members and Irish Nationalists, had two hundred and sixty-eight members, thus giving the Conservative Ministry in power a clear majority of one hundred and thirty-four over the combined Opposition. Thus the popular verdict at the polls was overwhelming in sustaining Lord Salisbury's Ministry in its prosecution of the war against the Boers, which question was the great issue in the election, thus repudiating the anti-war attitude of such Liberal leaders as John Morley, Mr. H. H. Asquith and Sir William Vernon Harcourt.



EDWARD VII OF ENGLAND

From a Photograph

Death of
Queen
Victoria.

Queen Victoria's death has been incidentally alluded to in a preceding paragraph, and it occurred at the end of the first three weeks of the twentieth century, in the sixty-fourth year of this good queen's reign and in the eighty-second year of her age, her reign being the longest in English history, exceeding that of her grandfather, George III., by three years. The first knowledge that the public had of the queen's illness was on Friday night, January 18, 1901, when the Court Circular stated that Her Majesty was not in her usual health and was to "abstain for the present from transacting business." The physician's bulletins of the next day, Saturday, January 19th, showed only too clearly that the queen's condition was most serious; and although there was a slight improvement on Monday, January 21st, Her Majesty breathed her last as the shades of night were coming on, Tuesday, January 22, 1901, passing away peacefully, surrounded by her children and grandchildren. But her eldest child, Victoria, the Empress Dowager of Germany and Princess Royal of Great Britain, the widow of the late Frederick III., King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany, was prevented from coming to England to see her dying mother by her own fatal illness from cancer; but her son, William II., King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany, was present at his illustrious grandmother's deathbed, having arrived in England two days before her death. The Prince of Wales and his nephew, the German Emperor, and the other children and grandchildren of the dead queen exhibited the most inconsolable grief at the death of Her Majesty. The dying queen was conscious almost to the last and recognized her imperial grandson. Thus the longest reign in English history ended in the early morning of the twentieth century.

World-
wide
Sorrow.

The news of Queen Victoria's death produced the most intense grief and mourning in every part of Great Britain and Ireland, and throughout Greater Britain, as the worldwide British Empire is now called. Very profound sorrow for the aged queen's death was felt in every part of the civilized world. All the governments of Europe expressed their sorrow and sympathy, and flags were half-masted in every European capital. The flags on the Executive buildings at Washington were also half-masted, and President McKinley sent a message of condolence and sympathy to the new King of Great Britain and Ireland. The press of every country eulogized the dead queen for her many virtues. The pulpits everywhere in the civilized world resounded with glowing tributes to the deceased queen on the Sunday following her death.

King
Edward
VII.

The day after his mother's death, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, hastened to London, and in the presence of the Privy Council at St. James' Palace he was sworn in as Edward VII., King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, Em-

peror of India. The ceremony of installation of the new king was characteristic for rigid simplicity, being conducted with little pomp and display. The Privy Council's proclamation of the new king was in the old feudal and mediæval form, as illustrated by the following words:

The
Privy
Council's
Proclama-
tion
and the
King's
Declara-
tion.

"Whereas it has pleased Almighty God to call to His Mercy Our late Sovereign Lady, Queen Victoria, of Blessed and Glorious Memory, by whose Decease the Imperial Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is solely and rightfully come to the High and Mighty Prince, Albert Edward: We, therefore, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of this Realm, being here assisted with these of Her late Majesty's Privy Council, with Numbers of other Principal Gentlemen of Quality, with the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Citizens of London, do now hereby, with one Voice and Consent of Tongue and Heart, publish and proclaim, That the High and Mighty Prince, Albert Edward, is now, by the Death of our late Sovereign of Happy Memory, become our only lawful and rightful Liege Lord, Edward the Seventh, by the Grace of God, King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India: To whom we do acknowledge all Faith and constant Obedience, with hearty and humble Affection; beseeching God, by whom Kings and Queens do reign, to bless the Royal Prince Edward the Seventh, with long and happy years of reign over Us."

[Here follow the signatures of the Privy Councilors.]

"God save the King."

"At the Court of St. James's, the 23d day of January, 1901.

Present.

"The King's Most Excellent Majesty in Council."

"His Majesty being this day present in Council was pleased to make the following Declaration:

"Your Royal Highnesses, My Lords, and Gentlemen: This is the most painful occasion on which I shall ever be called upon to address you.

"My first and melancholy duty is to announce to you the death of my beloved mother, the Queen, and I know how deeply you, the whole nation, and I think I may say the whole world, sympathize with me in the irreparable loss we have all sustained.

"I need hardly say that my endeavor will be always to walk in her footsteps. In undertaking the heavy load which now devolves upon me, I am fully determined to be a constitutional sovereign in the strictest sense of the word, and as long as there is breath in my body to work for the good and amelioration of my people.

“ ‘I have resolved to be known by the name of Edward, which has been borne by six of my ancestors. In doing so I do not undervalue the name of Albert, which I inherit from my ever-to-be-lamented, great and wise father, who, by universal consent, is, I think, deservedly known by the name of Albert the Good, and I desire that his name shall stand alone.

“ ‘In conclusion, I trust to Parliament and the nation to support me in the arduous duties which now devolve upon me by inheritance, and to which I am determined to devote my whole strength during the remainder of my life.’ ”

Both Houses of Parliament assembled on the same day so that the members could take the oath of allegiance to the new king. The next day—January 24, 1901—the people of London were treated to a ceremony of feudal and mediæval times, in proclaiming the new king to the populace of the British capital and metropolis; but the king was not present at St. James’s Palace when he was proclaimed on this occasion. The proclamation was made known throughout the city by the heralds according to feudal style; the blowing of fanfares, the mediæval costumes of the Earl Marshal of England and the other dignitaries who conducted the ceremonies, and the whole feudal and mediæval feature of the affair, reminding one of the days of the Plantagenets. In accordance with Middle Age custom, the city of London was filled with troops before the people awoke in the morning. As in the old feudal times, the Duke of Norfolk was Earl Marshal.

**Parliament’s
Oath of
Allegiance.**

The new king returned to Osborne House to prepare for his dead mother’s funeral. The funeral pageant began on Friday, February 1st, when eight miles of warships followed the deceased queen’s remains from the Isle of Wight. Besides the hundreds of British warships there were several German war vessels and one from each of the navies of other nations. Never before was there such a funeral pageant as that of Queen Victoria in London on Saturday, February 2, 1901. Besides London’s almost seven millions of people there were several millions who had come to the great capital and metropolis from outside its borders. The funeral of this good queen, whose heart was grieved at war, was given a military character. The remains of the queenly little woman, enclosed in an oaken coffin, scarcely larger than that of a child, were conveyed, not on a hearse, but on a gun-carriage, which was the object of most interest in the whole procession to the eyes of the millions who viewed the imposing funeral pageant. Behind this gun-carriage with the queen’s remains, drawn by eight cream-colored horses, followed King Edward VII.; his brother, the Duke of Connaught, and his nephew, the Emperor of Germany, all three in Field-Marshal’s uniforms and all three on horseback. The

**Funeral
of Queen
Victoria.**

other members of the royal family and their relatives followed. Then came the other royal dignitaries, among the most prominent of whom were three kings, Leopold II. of Belgium, George of Greece and Charles of Portugal, and the Prince of Siam. After the funeral pageant in London the queen's remains, accompanied by the mourners, were taken to Windsor and interred beside the remains of her husband in the beautiful mausoleum at Frogmore, on Monday, February 4th, with private ceremonies attended by the royal family and relatives and foreign visitors. During the period of mourning for the dead queen the city of London was draped, first in black, and then, by the new king's order, in purple, the latter being the imperial color, as the ancient Roman Emperors wore purple robes as their imperial insignia.

King
Edward
VII. and
Emperor
William
II.

The prominent part which the Emperor William II. of Germany bore in the Victorian obsequies attracted much attention. He and his uncle, the new King of Great Britain and Ireland, are great personal friends. King Edward VII. created the German Emperor a Field-Marshal in the British army, and the British king's imperial nephew named a regiment in the German army *The Queen Victoria of Great Britain and Ireland Regiment*. After his distinguished grandmother's funeral the Emperor William II. returned to Germany to look after his sick mother, who had been greatly shocked by the death of her illustrious mother, whose funeral she had been unable to attend.

The
Name
Edward.

It is easily understood why the new king chose the title of Edward VII., instead of Albert I. Albert has never been a royal name in England, but Edward has been a good, old Saxon name. In the old Anglo-Saxon days, before the Norman Conquest, occurred the reigns of Edward the Elder, Edward the Martyr and Edward the Confessor, who are not among the numbered Edwards who reigned after the Conquest. Edward I. and Edward III. were the greatest of the Plantagenets and were the great heroes of the heroic age of feudal England; Edward I. having conquered Wales in 1282 and having also twice conquered Scotland, though it recovered its independence under William Wallace and Robert Bruce; and Edward III. being noted for his victories over the Scots and the French, the victories of Crécy and Poitiers over the French being among the greatest events of the Middle Ages.

Greatness
of Queen
Victoria's
Reign.

The two sovereigns most beloved and revered by the English people have been Alfred the Great, who died in A. D. 901, and Victoria, who died a thousand years later, A. D. 1901. In many respects Queen Victoria's reign was the greatest and the most brilliant as well as the longest in English history. Great Britain had very few great wars during her reign, though she waged many little wars in Asia and Africa; but the material progress of the British nation during her

long reign was without a parallel in British history and perhaps in the history of the world. During her reign steam and electricity have revolutionized the industries and commerce of the world and the means of production, transportation, communication and intelligence; steamships, steam and electric railways, the telegraph, the telephone and other great inventions which have done so much for the world's progress having either originated or attained their full development during the period of this long reign. Victoria's reign covered the period of the reigns of many other sovereigns and the administrations of seventeen Presidents of the United States. Great Britain and her self-governing colonies attained their full democratic development during the same period, thus making Greater Britain practically a democratic or republican empire with a monarchical figure-head.

As we have observed, after the fall of Johannesburg and Pretoria the organized resistance of the Boers practically collapsed, and the war thereafter ceased to be interesting to the world in general, though continuing two years longer as a guerrilla struggle. Botha, DeWet, Prinsloo and other Boer leaders, at the head of Boer detachments, gave the British military forces under the chief command of Lord Kitchener much trouble and thus prevented a pacification of the Vaal River Colony and the Orange River Colony. The Boers frequently fired upon the British from buildings, and the British often retaliated by burning the Boer buildings from which shots were fired. Each party charged the other with cruelty. DeWet especially gave the British much annoyance, frequently defeating and capturing whole British detachments. On May 31, 1902—two years after the occupation of Johannesburg by Lord Roberts—a treaty of peace was signed by Lord Kitchener on the part of Great Britain and by President Steyn on the part of the Boers, by which the Boers accepted British sovereignty and were assured civil and political rights as British subjects, while Great Britain agreed to liberate all Boer prisoners which she held in Ceylon, St. Helena and elsewhere and to furnish the Boers with three million pounds sterling (fifteen million American dollars) to rebuild their ruined homes and restock their farms, while the Boers were also to be exempt from taxation for thirty years. The Boer forces then dispersed, and many Boers enlisted in the British army to aid in fighting the Mad Mullah in British Somaliland. The British Ministry afterward raised the amount to be donated to the Boers from three million pounds to eight million pounds (forty million dollars), and still later to fifteen million pounds (seventy-five million dollars).

During 1901 and 1902 the British were involved in a severe struggle with the Mad Mullah, another fanatical Mohammedan warrior, in British Somaliland, in the extreme eastern part of East Africa. Dur-

Close
of the
British-
Boer
War.

War
with the
Mad
Mullah
in British
Somali-
land.

ing those years the Mad Mullah gained many successes over the British, but finally he was assassinated, and his dervishes were routed by the British with a thousand killed, January 11, 1904.

**Corona-
tion of
King
Edward
VII.**

Early in June, 1902, immense preparations were made for an imposing coronation of Edward VII. in London as "King of Great Britain and Ireland and the British Dominions Beyond the Sea," which was the new title given him by act of Parliament to denote his sovereignty of the worldwide British Empire; but before the coronation day the king was suddenly taken seriously ill, London being thrown into consternation by the announcement to that effect on Sunday, June 15, 1902. It was necessary to postpone the coronation ceremony, which was to come off on June 26th. The king slowly recovered; and on August 9, 1902, he was solemnly crowned at Westminster Abbey as "Edward VII. R. I., by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions Beyond the Sea, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India." The ceremonies at St. James's Palace and at Westminster Abbey, the blare of trumpets, the blowing of fanfares, the shouts of "God Save the King," the mediæval and feudal costume of the Duke of Norfolk as Earl Marshal of England, linked the ceremony with the customs and traditions of the past.

**Prime
Minister
Balfour.**

The Marquis of Salisbury resigned on July 13, 1902, and was succeeded as Prime Minister by his distinguished nephew, Arthur James Balfour, the First Lord of the Treasury and the Ministerial leader in the House of Commons. Lord Salisbury retired from active public life on account of his advancing years, as did his great political rival and Liberal opponent, Mr. Gladstone, in 1895. Mr. Balfour had been a prominent leader in the Conservative party for fifteen years, first attaining prominence as Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Salisbury's second Ministry in 1886. Lord Salisbury died a year later at his home, Hatfield House, August 22, 1903, the fiftieth anniversary of his entrance into public life as a member of the House of Commons.

**Trouble
with
Vene-
zuela.**

Late in 1902 Great Britain and Germany endeavored to collect the claims of British and German subjects in Venezuela, as the government of President Castro was very defiant and rejected the demands of the British and German governments. Venezuelan ports were bombarded and Venezuelan warships were sunk by the British and German warships, but the friendly mediation of the United States government induced Great Britain and Germany to consent to arbitration.

**Lord
Curzon
and the
Durbar
in India.**

In the spring of 1898 Lord Elgin had been succeeded as Viceroy of British India by Lord Curzon, a famous British politician and author, whose real name was George Nathaniel Curzon, but who had just been created Baron Curzon of Kedleston the very same year, and whose

wife was an American woman. In 1900 Lord Curzon, as Viceroy of British India, established a new Frontier Province in the Northwest of India, and in 1901 he made a tour of India and did much for the relief of the sufferers in the famine-stricken districts. On December 29, 1902, he held the Durbar at Delhi, as the ceremonies attending the proclamation of King Edward VII. as Emperor of India are called, the initial ceremony being the formal entry of the Viceroy of India into the capital.

In May, 1903, Great Britain's Secretary of Foreign Affairs, the Marquis of Lansdowne, proclaimed a British Monroe Doctrine in the Persian Gulf and practically notified the other European powers that any attempt on their part to establish a naval base or a fortified port in those waters would mean a war with Great Britain. In a speech in the House of Lords, Lord Lansdowne declared: "I say, without hesitation, that we should regard the establishment of a naval base or a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other power as a very grave menace to British interests, and we should certainly resist it with all the means at our disposal." Lord Lansdowne reviewed the situation in the Persian Gulf as it affected British interests, contending that so far as the navigation of the Persian Gulf was concerned Great Britain held a position different from that of the other powers, both because it was owing to British enterprise and expenditure of life and treasure that the Persian Gulf is now open to the world's commerce and because the protection of the sea route to British India necessitated British preponderance in that gulf. The London press commented on the analogy of Lord Lansdowne's explicit enunciation to the American Monroe Doctrine. The *Westminster Gazette* maintained that the newly-announced British policy respecting the Persian Gulf in its motive corresponds exactly with the motive of the United States in excluding European powers from American waters because American territory would be menaced thereby.

**Great
Britain's
Monroe
Doctrine.**

On April 12, 1904, Great Britain concluded an important colonial treaty with France, by which various questions affecting the colonies of the two nations in various quarters were adjusted to the satisfaction of both powers, one of the long-standing questions settled being the French-Shore Question in Newfoundland, which had often been a source of great trouble.

**Treaty
with
France.**

In the spring of 1904 a British Indian expedition under Colonel Younghusband advanced into Thibet to chastise the Thibetans for their infraction of treaties. This British Indian expedition reached Lassa, the capital of Thibet, in August, 1904, and occupied the city without opposition, as their advance had met with little resistance during the whole period of the invasion. As the Grand Lama had fled on the approach of the invaders, the British were obliged to conduct negotiations with the Thibetan regent and with the Chinese Amban. Colonel Younghusband

**British-
Indian
Expedi-
tion to
Thibet.**

concluded a treaty with the Thibetan officials which established British influence in the place of Russian influence in Thibet, the British recognizing Chinese suzerainty over Thibet and disclaiming any design on Thibetan territory. Thus the "Forbidden City" of Lassa, the residence of the Grand Lama, a sort of Buddhist Pope, was entered and occupied by a foreign army of invasion.

**North
Sea
Incident.**

On the night of October 21, 1904, the Russian fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky in the North Sea fired upon some British fishing vessels, asserting that they supposed them to be Japanese torpedo-boats; and for several days the relations between Great Britain and Russia were strained in consequence, but the trouble was soon settled satisfactorily by negotiation, Russia offering ample satisfaction for the imprudent action of her admiral, the final question of reparation for damages being referred for adjustment to the decision of an international commission, which several months later reached an agreement mutually satisfactory to both parties in the controversy.

**Arbitra-
tion
Treaties.**

During the last few months of 1903 Great Britain signed arbitration treaties with France and the United States for the settlement of such disputes as might have arisen with either of those two great republics, the treaty with the United States being signed on December 12th.

**Tonga
Islands.**

Early in 1905 Great Britain assumed control of the legal and financial administration of the Tonga, or Friendly Islands, in the South Pacific, which Germany had ceded to her in November, 1899, as compensation for British retirement from the Samoan, or Navigators' Islands, which were then divided between Germany and the United States.

**The
Moroccan
Question.**

Early in 1905 Great Britain and France came to an agreement respecting Morocco, Great Britain supporting France in her contention with Germany as to Morocco, the controversy between France and Germany relative to that question assuming a very menacing aspect. By a treaty signed with the little Central American republic of Nicaragua on April 27, 1905, Great Britain abandoned the Mosquito Coast, over which she had exercised a protectorate for many years.

**The
Mosquito
Coast.**

In the summer of 1905, King Alfonso XIII., of Spain, visited England as the guest of King Edward VII. This event was one of a series tending to strengthen the friendly ties existing between England and the Continental European nations. During the year there were numerous visits of royalties to and from England. In August, a serious disagreement as to military control of the British troops in India led to the triumph of Lord Kitchener's policy and the resignation of the Viceroy, Lord Curzon. He was succeeded by the Earl of Minto. In September, England and Japan signed a treaty of alliance, including an agreement to maintain peace in Eastern Asia and India and preserve the integrity of China. In November a British cruiser squadron visited the United States and met with an

**Anglo-
Japanese
Alliance.**

HISTORICAL MAP OF

BRITISH INDIA

Since A. D. 1751

By J. S. Clarke

SCALE OF MILES.

0 25 50 75 100 200 300

British Territory

Protected States

Boundaries of the Three Presidencies,

Bengal, Madras and Bombay

- French Possessions Pondicherry, Chandernagore and Mahe
- Portuguese Possessions Goa, Diu and Damão
- Dutch Possession Bencoolen
- Boundary of The Mahadja State of 1760
- Boundary of British Territories in 1760
- Boundary of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Surat and Severndroog
- Dutch Possession Before 1760
- Ceylon

- Buff
- Yellow
- Green

Deep Yellow





enthusiastic reception both afloat and ashore. In December, the Balfour Ministry resigned and Henry Campbell-Bannerman became Prime Minister.

In February, 1906, the British battleship *Dreadnought* was launched at Portsmouth. In May, many Englishwomen, called Suffragettes, made a violent demonstration at the House of Commons. Several were arrested and finally imprisoned. Their demand was and is for equal voting rights with men. James Bryce, the famous statesman and historian, in February, 1907, presented his credentials at Washington as British Ambassador. In April, Lord Cromer, British Consul-General in Egypt, resigned after making a brilliant record as a diplomat and a firm upholder of British dignity and prestige. On August 31, an Anglo-Russian agreement concerning the control of Asia was signed. The visits of monarchs to each other's nations in 1907 included an official journey of King Edward to his nephew, Kaiser Wilhelm II., at Berlin, and a return visit of the Kaiser and his family to London. On March 22, 1907, the House of Commons rejected the bill to introduce the metric system into Great Britain. On April 15, 1907, the postal rates on newspapers, magazines and trade journals were reduced to two cents a pound.

Suffragette
Disturb-
ances.

Anglo-
Russian
Agree-
ment.

On January 29, 1908, King Edward opened the third session of the present British Parliament. In March, the National Ratepayers' Federation was formed. During the same month, John E. Redmond offered a resolution in the House of Commons favoring self-government in Ireland on purely Irish affairs. In April, Prime Minister Campbell-Bannerman resigned from ill-health and H. H. Asquith, Chancellor of the Exchequer, was chosen by King Edward for the Premiership. On March 27 an understanding was reached between Great Britain and the United States in the matter of the fresh-water fisheries dispute between Canada and the latter country. On April 22, Sir W. Hely-Hutchinson, in behalf of Great Britain, opened the newly-elected Cape Parliament. In May, Premier Asquith announced that old-age pensions would be paid from the Treasury. In June, the Suffragettes held a monster meeting in Hyde Park. On April 3, 1908, a bill to establish two new universities at Dublin and Belfast, Ireland, introduced by Mr. Birrell, passed to first reading; the second reading was passed May 11, and its final reading July 25. The university at Dublin was united with two colleges at Cork and Galway to constitute the first university, and Queen's College at Belfast constitutes the second. On March 22, 1908, an agreement was concluded with China to restrict the opium traffic. An agreement with the United States was also concluded, establishing postal rates of two cents per ounce on letters, to take effect October 1, 1908.

Cabinet
Changes.

Old Age
Pensions.

Irish Uni-
versities
Estab-
lished.

Postal
Agree-
ment with
United
States.

SECTION XIX.—FRANCE TO 1908.

**M. de
Frey-
cinet's
Ministry**

THE French Republic was secure from Monarchical attacks after the election of Jules Grévy to the Presidency, in January, 1879; and the Republicans became divided on questions of public policy. At the close of December, 1879, the Ministry of M. Waddington was obliged to resign; whereupon a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet undertook the control of public affairs in France.

**Amnesty
to French
Communis-
tists of
1871.**

On June 21, 1880, after a spirited debate, and through the exertions of M. Gambetta, the French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of three hundred and thirty-three to one hundred and forty, passed a bill granting amnesty to the Communists of 1871. This bill was rejected by the French Senate on July 3, 1880; but at the same time the Senate adopted a measure granting amnesty to all the participants in the Communist revolt of 1871, except incendiaries and assassins, by a vote of one hundred and forty-three to one hundred and thirty-eight. On July 10, 1880, the Chamber of Deputies adopted the amnesty bill as passed by the Senate.

**Anti-
Jesuit
Decrees in
France.**

Toward the close of June, 1880, the French government undertook to enforce the decrees closing all religious houses. The enforcement of these decrees caused slight disorder in Paris, and very little excitement in the provinces, the Jesuits quitting their establishments under protest. At several places, however, the police and the military had to effect forcible entrances; and several Jesuit establishments took legal proceedings against the Police Commissioner for violating a domicile and infringing personal liberty. A number of magistrates resigned rather than enforce the anti-Jesuit decrees. An animated debate occurred in the Chamber of Deputies on July 2, 1880, concerning the Jesuit expulsions; and the Ministry was bitterly assailed. By the close of August, 1880, the three large Jesuit schools in Paris were entirely abandoned. A number of French bishops protested against the enforcement of the decrees against the Jesuits and undertook to defend the religious houses, and Pope Leo XIII. approved their course and protested against the action of the French Ministry, but the French Cabinet resolved to adhere to its policy.

**Bastille
Centen-
nial
Fete.**

On July 14, 1880, a grand national fête in honor of the destruction of the Bastille was held in Paris. Thousands of people from the provinces flocked to the capital to witness the magnificent pageant, and the greatest Republican enthusiasm was manifested. The elections in France on August 2, 1880, resulted in large Republican gains all over the country.

The application of the religious decrees caused a Ministerial crisis in France on September 19, 1880, resulting in the resignation of M. de Freycinet's Cabinet and the accession of a new Ministry under the Premiership of M. Jules Ferry. In November, 1880, another Cabinet crisis was threatened; but both Chambers of the Assembly passed votes of confidence in the Ministry, and M. Jules Ferry's Cabinet remained in power.

**Jules
Ferry's
Ministry.**

Early in April, 1881, a French military expedition invaded Tunis, with the ostensible purpose of chastising the Kroumirs, a marauding Arab tribe that had made plundering and murderous raids into Algeria; and the Bey of Tunis was forced to accept a treaty making Tunis a virtual dependency of France, May 12, 1881. The Bey informed the Porte that he signed the treaty under compulsion.

**French
Invasion
and
Occupation
of
Tunis.**

The Ottoman Porte protested to the European Powers against the French invasion of Tunis and sent several notes to the French government relative to France's attack on the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, but France declined to recognize the Porte's suzerainty over the Bey of Tunis. France warned the Porte that the dispatch of any Turkish force to Tunis would be regarded as a cause for war. The French squadron in the Piræus left suddenly to cruise in Suda Bay to intercept any Turkish men-of-war bound for Tunis.

**Relations
of France
and
Turkey.**

Great Britain and Italy were highly indignant at the French proceedings in Tunis; and the British and Italian press protested most vigorously against the Franco-Tunisian treaty, accusing France of perfidy and falsehood because she had assured Great Britain and Italy when the invasion began that the French merely wished to chastise the Kroumirs. The Paris press replied angrily to the English criticisms of the treaty. The treaty led to a change of Ministry in Italy.

**Indigna-
tion of
Great
Britain
and Italy.**

Not a voice was raised against the treaty in the French Senate or Chamber of Deputies; and on May 23, 1881, the Chamber of Deputies ratified the treaty by a vote of four hundred and fifty-three to one. M. Roustan, the French Consul-General at Tunis, issued a circular to the Great Powers about the middle of June, 1881, announcing that the Bey had intrusted him with the direction of the foreign relations of Tunis. This circular created great dissatisfaction in England and Italy.

**France's
Attitude.**

On November 15, 1881, a new Ministry headed by M. Gambetta succeeded the Ministry of M. Jules Ferry. M. Brisson was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies. Gambetta defined his policy, which was to be a revision of the Constitution of France. In the Senatorial elections in France early in January, 1882, the Republicans gained twenty-two seats. M. Gambetta ascended the tribune in the Chamber of Deputies, January 14, 1882, and read the bill for the

**Gam-
betta's
Ministry**

revision of the Constitution. A committee of thirty-three was appointed in the Chamber of Deputies to examine the bill. Two-thirds of the committee opposed the measure. In a speech to the committee Gambetta made a threat which created a most profound sensation. The committee reported against the bill, and the Chamber of Deputies rejected the measure by a vote of three hundred and five to one hundred and seventeen, January 26, 1882. Gambetta and his Ministry at once resigned and were succeeded by a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet. On August 7, 1882, M. de Freycinet's Ministry gave place to a new one headed by M. Duclerc. The French Republic sustained an irreparable loss in the death of Gambetta, December 31, 1882. The remains of this great statesman and patriot were honored with the most magnificent funeral pageant ever seen in Paris, three hundred thousand persons being in the procession. He died at the early age of forty-four.

M. de Freycinet and Duclerc.

Gambetta's Death.

Anarchist Riots.

During the fall of 1882 there were dangerous Anarchist riots at Lyons and Monceaux les Mines, and the French Republic was disturbed for several months by Anarchist and Communist agitation. Louise Michel and Prince Krapotkine, a Russian Nihilist exile, were arrested, tried, convicted, sentenced and imprisoned, for their part in the disturbances. Louise Michel was arrested March 30, 1883, and was tried, convicted, sentenced and imprisoned for six years, in June. A motion to grant amnesty to Louise Michel and the convicted Anarchists was rejected by the Senate, July 9th. On the national fête day, July 14, 1883, a statue of the Republic was unveiled in the Chateau d'Eau, in Paris, in the presence of members of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies and a vast multitude of people.

Statue of the Republic.

Jules Ferry's Ministry.

There were frequent changes of Ministry in France, and another Ministry under Jules Ferry again came into power. In 1883 France became involved in a war with the Queen of Madagascar, and a French fleet under Admiral Pierre bombarded and took Tamatave, June 19, 1883. In 1883 France also waged war against the Empire of Anam for the possession of Tonquin; and the French gained several victories, and made a successful sortie from Hanoi, July 19, 1883, and from Namdinh, August 7th, and bombarded Hue, the Anamese capital, August 18th.

Wars with Madagascar and Anam.

War with China.

The Treaty of Hue, August 25, 1883, did not end the war; as the war party in Anam was supported by China, whose Emperor claimed a suzerainty over Tonquin. The Chinese now took the field against the French, but were routed at Haiphong, December 9, 1883; and the French captured Sontay on December 16th, Bac-Ninh on March 14, 1884, and Hung-Hoa on April 15th. The refusal of China to pay the indemnity demanded by France led to the capture of Keelung,

on the island of Formosa, by the French navy, August 5, 1884, and also to the bombardment of Foo-chow, or Foo-choo-foo, China, and the destruction of the Chinese fleet in that port by the French fleet under Admiral Courbet, August 23, 24 and 25, 1884.

**French
Successes
in China.**

Thereupon the Chinese Emperor declared war against France; and three Chinese armies, numbering together seventy-five thousand men, invaded Tonquin to expel the French from that province. The French reoccupied Keelung and seized the island of Formosa early in October, 1884. Six thousand Chinese were repulsed by the French at Kep, in Tonquin, the Chinese losing a thousand men. The French fleet under Admiral Lespes was repulsed by the Chinese at Tamstui, in the island of Formosa, October 12, 1884. In Tonquin the French defeated the Chinese with considerable loss at Tuyen-Kwang, October 13th of the same year.

**Chinese
Invasion
of
Tonquin.**

**French
Successes.**

The French occupied Langson, February 14, 1885, after its evacuation by the Chinese, who had been defeated by the French, February 11 and 12, 1885. The French fleet under Admiral Courbet captured the Keelung coal mines, in the island of Formosa, after a hard battle, January 25, 1885. Finally the French in Tonquin met with a crushing defeat at Langson, General Negrier being severely wounded. This decisive defeat caused great excitement and indignation in Paris. The Chambers were surrounded by an angry mob; and M. Jules Ferry's Ministry was forced to resign by an adverse vote of three hundred and eight to one hundred and sixty-one in the Chamber of Deputies, whereupon a new Ministry under M. Henri Brisson came into power. Ferry was branded and hooted as a traitor and a liar; and members of his own party cried: "Down with the wretch!" "Turn him out!" A treaty of peace was concluded, by which France renounced her claim for indemnity from China, while China recognized the French protectorate over Tonquin and Anam, April 3, 1885. On July 6, 1885, the French in Anam were attacked by thirty thousand Anamites; and on October 26th General de Courcy defeated the Anamites, capturing their stronghold.

**Continued
French
Suc-
cesses.**

**Great
French
Reverse.**

**Brisson's
Ministry.**

On May 24, 1885, the anniversary of the burial of the Communist dead, a Communist riot broke out in the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, in Paris, in consequence of an attempt by the police to seize the red flags carried by the Communists; and a number of police and Anarchists were killed and wounded, but the police were finally triumphant. The Chamber of Deputies sustained the action of the police and passed a vote of confidence in the Ministry by three hundred and eighty-eight to ten.

**Communist
Riot
in Paris.**

In the French elections of 1885 the Conservatives gained ninety-six seats in the Chamber of Deputies. In December of that year peace

**Elections
of 1885.**

was made between France and Madagascar, after several French defeats by the Hovas.

**President
Grevy's
Re elec-
tion.**

On December 28, 1885, the two Chambers of the French Assembly in joint convention, or Congress, reëlected M. Jules Grévy President of the French Republic for a second term of seven years. M. Brisson's Ministry resigned, and a new Ministry under M. de Freycinet was formed January 7, 1886. In this Ministry, General Boulanger held the post of Minister of War. His policy was to increase and reorganize the French army, so as to make it superior to the German army; and he represented the French sentiment of a desire for war with Germany. His course aroused the military ardor of France and alarmed the German government.

**M. de
Frey-
cinet's
Third
Ministry.**

**Expul-
sion
of the
French
Princes.**

In June, 1886, both Chambers of the Assembly passed a bill for the expulsion of the French princes from the country. The Duke d'Aumale protested against his expulsion from the French army. Prince Victor Napoleon went to Belgium. Prince Jerome Napoleon went to Italy. Prince Napoleon, "Plon Plon," proceeded to Switzerland. Prince Louis Napoleon visited the United States. The Orleans princes—the Count de Paris, the Duke de Chartres and the Duke d'Aumale—retired to England. The Duke d'Aumale in his will bequeathed his great estates at Chantilly, with all their appurtenances, works of art, books and revenues, to the French people, on condition that the property must be preserved intact. This gift was valued at twenty-five million francs.

**Elections
of 1886.**

The Republicans carried eight hundred and forty-seven districts in the elections for Conseilles-Genereaux, or Councils-General, on August 1, 1886; and the Conservatives carried four hundred and eleven districts. Second ballots were required in one hundred and seventy-seven districts, in which the Republicans were generally successful.

**Goblet's
Ministry.**

An adverse vote in the Chamber of Deputies led to the resignation of M. de Freycinet's third Ministry and the formation of a new ministry under M. Goblet, December 11, 1886. In consequence of a defeat in the Chamber of Deputies, M. Goblet's Cabinet resigned, whereupon M. Rouvier formed a new Ministry, May 27, 1887. The warlike proclivities of General Boulanger, who had become a great popular idol among the French people, alarmed the wisest statesmen of France, who desired the maintenance of peace. This peace party desired to suppress General Boulanger; and the warlike general was assigned to the command of the Thirteenth French Army Corps, in order to get him away from Paris during the anniversary of the capture of the Bastille, July 14th. The Boulangists prepared for a demonstration on that day, and shouted: "Vive Boulanger!" But the Ministry suppressed it, and the day passed off without any serious

**Rouvier's
Ministry.**

disturbance. General Boulanger's plan was to mobilize the French army in October, 1887; and M. Ferron, the Minister of War in M. Rouvier's Cabinet, emulated his warlike predecessor.

The relations of France and Germany were strained in consequence of several incidents on the frontier of Alsace. A French official had been enticed over the frontier by German officials and imprisoned for communicating with disaffected parties in Alsace-Lorraine, but was soon released by the German authorities. Several months later French sportsmen were fatally shot for intruding on German territory, but the German government paid an indemnity to the families of the victims. The Ministry decided upon the mobilization of the French army and upon the dismissal of all Mayors who made demonstrations in favor of the Count de Paris during his visit to the Isle of Jersey. The Count von Münster, the German ambassador at Paris, protested against the hostile tone of the French Radical press toward Germany, especially one article characterizing the count himself as "the Grand Master of the order of spies" and describing the whole German embassy as a "nest of reptiles." Lord Lyons, the British ambassador, also protested against these violent attacks of the Radical journals of France. M. Flourens, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, expressed his regret for these hostile newspaper articles.

Through the influence, courage, prudence and conservatism of President Jules Grévy, the Boulanger war party was overthrown in 1887. President Grévy saw that France was being swept without sense or reason into a position in which war with Germany would have been inevitable. It required great courage, firmness and wisdom on the venerable President's part to overthrow the hero and idol Boulanger from his place of vantage in the War Office, without exciting any dangerous opposition to such a course on the part of the French people.

President Grévy had been very popular among his countrymen until the fall of 1887 and had always been recognized as one of the most upright statesmen that France ever had. He had always been regarded as honest, safe, conservative and patriotic. But in October, 1887, several scandals were brought to light. General Caffarel was found to have been engaged in the corrupt practice of selling army decorations; and General Boulanger, the former Minister of War and the great popular favorite, was found to be involved; as was also M. Daniel Wilson, President Grévy's son-in-law. These guilty parties were arrested, and the exposure of their corruption created a storm of indignation among the French people.

President Grévy was not involved; but, because his son-in-law was, he suddenly became so unpopular that his resignation was generally insisted upon, especially as he had opposed an investigation of his

**Relations
of France
and
Germany.**

**Suppression
of
the Boulanger
War
Party.**

**Disgrace
of
Generals
Caffarel
and Boulanger
and M.
Wilson.**

**President
Grévy's
Fall.**

son-in-law's conduct. President Grévy for some time resisted the popular pressure; but he finally yielded to the popular desire and the desire of the National Assembly, December 2, 1887, and resigned the Presidency of the French Republic in the seventy-fifth year of his age. The next day, December 3, 1887, the two Chambers of the Assembly in joint convention, or Congress, elected M. Sadi-Carnot his successor. About six hundred votes were cast for the new President, who is a grandson of the famous M. Carnot, the War Minister during the great French Revolution.

Sadi-Carnot,
President.

M. Rouvier's Cabinet resigned December 12, 1887, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under M. Tirard; but the Tirard Ministry was overthrown by an adverse vote in the Chamber of Deputies, March 30, 1888, and a new Cabinet was organized under the Premiership of M. Floquet.

Tirard
and
Floquet.

On January 26, 1889, General Boulanger was elected to the Chamber of Deputies from Paris by a majority of fifty thousand and by a plurality of eighty thousand. Great excitement prevailed on the Boulevards during the night, and the Cabinet held a night session to discuss the situation. The Ministry of M. Floquet was succeeded several weeks later by a new Cabinet under M. Tirard, February 21, 1889. It was feared that General Boulanger, encouraged by his popularity, might attempt a *coup d'état*. The general received a great ovation on his way to Tours on March 17, 1889, and he made a speech declaring himself uncompromisingly in favor of a Republic without an Assembly.

Election
of
General
Bou-
langer.

Tirard's
Ministry.

At the beginning of April, 1889, General Boulanger was prosecuted by the government on charges of conspiracy against the Republic. Thereupon he fled to Belgium and issued a proclamation to the French people. There was great excitement in Paris. The Ministry decided to bring Boulanger to trial, and the Chamber of Deputies preferred charges of treason against him. The trial began before the Senate on April 12th.

Prosecu-
tion of
General
Bou-
langer.

The Royalists, Bonapartists and Boulangists formed a coalition against the Republicans in the campaign of 1889; but the elections, on Sunday, September 22, 1889, gave the Republicans an overwhelming majority in the new Chamber of Deputies, thus inflicting a deadly blow at General Boulanger's prospects and for the time at least effectually disposing of that demagogue. Two hundred and twenty-four Republicans and one hundred and fifty-nine Opposition members were elected. Second ballots were necessary in one hundred and seventy-seven electoral districts, most of which were carried by the Republicans. The elections of General Boulanger in Montmartre and of Henri Rochefort in Belleville were annulled.

Elections
of 1889.



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THE BASTILE

Upper : The Bastille in the fourteenth century
Lower; Monument marking site of the Bastille



In March, 1890, M. Tirard's Ministry in France gave place to a new Cabinet under M. de Freycinet. In February, 1890, the Duke of Orleans, who had come to France in violation of the law, was arrested and imprisoned for three months, but was pardoned and escorted to the Swiss frontier in May, 1890.

M. de Freycinet's Ministry.

Early in 1890 France became involved in a war with the negro kingdom of Dahomey, in Western Africa; and in a struggle of three years King Behanzin and his army of Amazons were completely defeated in a number of conflicts. In the fall of 1891 the French troops in Tonquin were engaged in warfare with Chinese pirates. The French troops defeated the rebels in Tonquin in April, 1892.

War with Dahomey.

War in Tonquin.

The French Senatorial elections on Sunday, January 4, 1891, resulted in a gain of eleven seats by the Republicans. The alliance between France and Russia was fully shown in the maneuvers of the French and Russian fleets at Cronstadt, in July and August, 1891. Late in August, 1891, the French fleet visited England. Ex-President Jules Grévy died September 9, 1891. General Boulanger, who for several years had lived in exile, committed suicide at the tomb of his deceased mistress, Madame Bonnemaine, at Brussels, September 30, 1891.

Franco-Russian Alliance.

General Boulanger's Suicide.

The expulsion of M. Chadouine, a French journalist from Bulgaria, in December, 1891, for offensive articles reflecting on the Bulgarian government, led to a diplomatic rupture between that Balkan principality and the French Republic, and cordial relations were restored only when Bulgaria apologized to France and retraced her course, January, 1892.

Franco-Bulgarian Rupture.

When the French National Assembly rejected the Ministerial bill aimed at the religious orders, M. de Freycinet's Ministry resigned, February 19, 1892; and a new Ministry under M. Loubet came into power, February 27, 1892.

Loubet's Ministry.

During the spring of 1892 Paris was exposed to Anarchist outrages, and numerous Anarchists were arrested in March of that year. These arrests aroused the ire of the Anarchists, who revenged themselves by resorting to dynamite explosions. The French authorities at once expelled all foreign Anarchists from the country. Ravachol, the leader of the Paris Anarchists, was arrested for several murders. M. Véry's restaurant was blown up with dynamite and the proprietor killed, because he had testified against Ravachol. After being tried and acquitted by a timid jury, who were overawed by Anarchist threats, Ravachol was finally convicted and guillotined. The Anarchist outrages in France, along with those in Spain, Portugal and Belgium at the same time, caused widespread alarm throughout Continental Europe. The dynamite plots in Paris were renewed in November, 1892,

Anarchist Outrages in Paris.

Republican Centennial. and the police bureau was wrecked by an explosion. There was a great national fête in Paris on September 22, 1892, the centennial anniversary of the proclamation of the First French Republic.

Panama Canal Scandal. In the meantime the great engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, the projector of the Suez Canal, had also undertaken the cutting of a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama, by organizing a gigantic company in France which obtained a charter from the Colombian government. Thousands of Frenchmen of all classes were induced to subscribe stock in the new company, but the enterprise involved such immense expenditures that the work was practically abandoned, and the thousands of contributors to the gigantic scheme found themselves swindled. A storm of popular indignation forced the Chamber of Deputies to vote for a Committee of Inquiry and for the prosecution of the Panama directors, Lesseps and others, November 21, 1892. Baron Reinach, who, as agent for the Panama Canal Company, gave over two million francs to Dr. Cornelius Herz, died suddenly under very suspicious circumstances when it was announced that a Panama inquiry would be made. M. Loubet was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies on a motion for the exhumation of Baron Reinach's body to discover whether he had been poisoned, November 28, 1892. Loubet's Ministry resigned December 5, 1892, and a new Cabinet under M. Ribot was formed. When an autopsy on Baron Reinach's body was made Dr. Herz fled to London. A demand for documents was rejected by the Assembly, which passed a vote of confidence in Ribot's Ministry. The crisis was a serious one for the French Republic, as the Royalists and Bonapartists were making use of the scandal, in which many Republican leaders were involved, to bring about the overthrow of the Third French Republic and the reëstablishment of monarchy in France.

Ribot's Ministry. The Panama Committee of Inquiry began its investigation December 24, 1892. The Panama loans of 1884 and 1888 were fully investigated. The examining magistrate completed his investigation early in January, 1893. The examination tarnished many hitherto-honored names of the Republic. The trial of the four Panama directors—Ferdinand de Lesseps and his son Charles, Marius Fontaine and Baron Cottu—with contractor Eiffel, the builder of the great one-thousand-feet tower in Paris, began January 10, 1893. The octogenarian Ferdinand de Lesseps was unable to attend on account of illness. The trial developed very strong evidence against the defendants. Dr. Cornelius Herz was arrested at Bournemouth, England, January 19, 1893, at the demand of the French government, which asked for his extradition; but his illness prevented his removal. He was several times at the point of death.

Panama Canal Investigation.

The Chamber of Indictments committed Charles de Lesseps, M. Eiffel and ten others for trial at the Assizes on charges of giving and receiving bribes. Charles de Lesseps appealed to the Court of Assizes to quash the indictment against him. The Paris Court of Appeal pronounced judgment against the aged and infirm Ferdinand de Lesseps, his son Charles, MM. Eiffel, Cottu and Fontaine for breach of trust and for swindling the stockholders of the Panama Canal Company, February 9, 1893. There was much sympathy for the aged Ferdinand de Lesseps, whose name had been honored throughout the civilized world for more than a score of years as the projector of the Suez Canal. The other defendants lodged appeals against the true bills against them. The trial of the Panama bribers and bribed—Charles de Lesseps and eight others—began March 8, 1893. Several days later Charles de Lesseps, Eiffel, Fontaine and Cottu were sentenced to imprisonment for a term of five years. The aged Ferdinand de Lesseps was also sentenced to imprisonment, but mercy was shown in his case on account of his great age and his feeble and imbecile condition. In June following all the convicted persons were released from imprisonment on technical grounds.

Trial and Imprisonment of Canal Directors.

While the Panama Canal inquiry was absorbing the attention of France, M. Jules Ferry, who had just been elected President of the French Senate, died very suddenly, March 17, 1893. An adverse vote in the Assemb'y compelled the resignation of M. Ribot's Cabinet, March 30, 1893, and the formation of a new Ministry under M. Dupuy.

Dupuy's Ministry.

The killing of many Italian workmen in a quarrel with French workmen at Aigues Mortes, in the spring of 1893, caused trouble between France and Italy, and angry popular demonstrations against France followed in Rome, but the trouble was settled by the two governments.

Franco-Italian Relations

During the first week of July, 1893, there was serious rioting in Paris caused by an attempt on the part of the government to prevent certain disgraceful proceedings on the part of students in a ball. The rioters routed the police and the military, and the government finally compromised with them by rescinding the order interfering with the conduct of the ball, thus giving the students practically a victory in their lawlessness. The crisis was considered serious for the French Republic, and all parties and factions were indulging in threats.

Student Riots in Paris.

In the spring of 1893 France became involved in a dispute with Siam which threatened to end in international complications of a serious nature. The French complained of Siamese aggression on French territory in Anam, the Siamese having established military posts in Cochin China, not far from Hue, the capital of Anam, and

France's Quarrel with Siam.

threatened to cut off Tonquin from Cochin China, early in the spring of 1893. The French drove back the Siamese invaders and recovered three hundred miles of territory. The Siamese evacuated the island of Khong, but tried to recapture it and seized Captain Thoreux and his men. At the demand of France, Captain Thoreux and his men were released, and Siam gave the most pacific assurances. M. Gros-gurin, a French inspector, was assassinated in his tent by order of a Siamese mandarin, whom he was under orders to conduct back so as to protect him against the population, the victims of his exactions. The Siamese government asked for time to make an inquiry and gave assurances of its readiness to grant France full reparation after having ascertained the facts.

Franco-Siamese Hostilities.

Hostilities broke out between France and Siam in May, 1893, caused by the investment of the town of Khong, in Cochin China, by Loatian tribesmen. The town was relieved by the French, May 22, 1893. The Siamese Minister expressed his regret to France for the Khong incident; but the French fleet under Admiral Hummann sailed to attack Bangkok, the Siamese capital. The French gunboats *Comète* and *Inconstante*, although refused permission by Siam to ascend the Menam river, went up the river toward Bangkok, July 13, 1893, and were fired upon by the Siamese forts at Paknam, with the loss of three killed and two wounded on the part of the crews, while twenty Siamese were killed in the forts. One Siamese gunboat was hulled, and the French steamer *Say* was sunk. The French gunboat *Forfait* came two days later.

Continued Hostilities.

The French Minister at Bangkok, M. Pavie, apologized to the Siamese government, saying that the French gunboats ascended the river in defiance of his orders. The French government forwarded an energetic protest to the Siamese government against the attack on the French sailors. Several days later, July 17, 1893, French marines captured two forts on the Upper Mekong river, while the Siamese sunk a French merchant vessel.

France's Ultimatum.

On July 18, 1893, the French government sent an *ultimatum* to Siam, demanding the cession of the territory on the east side of the Mekong river to the French possessions in Anam; the evacuation of the forts held there by the Siamese within a month; full satisfaction for various aggressions on French ships and sailors on the Menam river; the punishment of the culprits and provision for the pecuniary indemnity of the victims; an indemnity of three million francs for various damages sustained by French subjects; and the immediate deposit of three million francs to guarantee the payment of the indemnity and the punishment of the culprits, or the assignment of taxes in certain districts in lieu of the deposit of three million francs. Siam

was given forty-eight hours in which to answer the French *ultimatum*, and in case the terms of the *ultimatum* were rejected France was to declare a blockade.

The Franco-Siamese quarrel threatened to involve Great Britain and China in the dispute as allies of Siam. China, as the nominal suzerain of Siam, threatened to send a military force to the aid of the Siamese; while Great Britain, alarmed for the safety of the eastern frontier of British India and for her commercial interests in Siam, sent several warships to Siamese waters; and German warships were also sent to act in conjunction with the British and for the protection of German commercial interests.

**Attitude
of China,
Great
Britain
and
Germany.**

The Chinese ambassador in London was in close consultation with Lord Rosebery, British Minister of Foreign Affairs, the result of which was that Great Britain and China were negotiating a defensive alliance against France. Great Britain urged Li Hung Chang, the Chinese Viceroy, to send a fleet to Bangkok. Lord Dufferin, the British ambassador at Paris, had many conferences with M. Develle, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs; while M. Develle was in constant telegraphic communication with M. Pavie, the French Minister Resident at Bangkok.

**Franco-
British
Relations.**

The diplomatic relations between Great Britain and France were fast approaching a rupture, and war was threatened between the two nations. The British press assumed a firm tone in support of Lord Rosebery's attitude for the protection of British interests, while the French press and people clamored loudly for war with Great Britain and resented all foreign interference with plans for bringing Siam to terms. Great Britain was warmly supported in her course by Germany, and the Berlin press heartily commended Lord Roseberry's action.

**Franco-
British
Crisis.**

The approach of the French fleet under Admiral Humann caused great excitement and alarm at Bangkok, and the Siamese king and his court were on the point of fleeing from their capital. The land telegraph wires between Bangkok and Saigon were cut by the Siamese, thus necessitating some delay in the transmission of dispatches to the French warships at Bangkok.

**Alarm
in Siam.**

The French fleet under Admiral Humann began a blockade of Bangkok, July 28, 1893, having given notice to foreign vessels the preceding day. Outgoing vessels were warned that they must clear from Bangkok the next day or submit to detention. The blockade was to extend along the entire north coast of the Gulf of Siam.

**French
Fleet at
Bangkok.**

The Siamese feared that France was aiming to make their whole country a French province. The Siamese government, in a note to M. Pavie, expressed its ardent desire for the maintenance of peace and

**Siam's
Submis-
sion to
France's
Terms.**

accepted the full terms of the French *ultimatum*, July 29, 1893; and the French blockade was raised in a few days and amicable relations were restored.

Thus the crisis which had threatened to involve not only France and Siam, but also Great Britain and China, and probably Germany, was adjusted amicably. Hard as were the conditions which powerful France imposed upon weak Siam, those terms would have been still severer had not Great Britain and China interfered in Siam's behalf.

The general election in France in the fall of 1893 resulted in favor of the Dupuy Ministry and the moderate Republicans and in the utter destruction of the remnant of the Boulangist party. A month later occurred the visit of the Russian fleet to Toulon, in return for the visit of the French fleet to Cronstadt in 1891. Three hundred thousand persons were in the streets of Toulon to receive the guests and hoped-for allies of the French people; and when the Russian admiral, Avellan, and his officers visited Paris the excitement and joy of the entire population of the French capital almost reached the point of madness. It was a week of fêtes, hospitalities and patriotic demonstrations; and the guests retired loaded with presents and almost literally overwhelmed with kindness. In addition to this interchange of courtesies, the Czar himself had honored the French ships at Copenhagen with a personal visit.

M. Dupuy's Ministry resigned November 2, 1893; and, after a prolonged crisis, M. Casimir-Perier, the grandson of King Louis Philippe's Prime Minister of the same name, formed a new Cabinet, M. Dupuy exchanging places with the new Prime Minister by becoming President of the Chamber of Deputies. The reactionaries lost several Senators in the elections on Sunday, January 7, 1894.

On the afternoon of December 9, 1893, an Anarchist named Vaillant suddenly threw an explosive bomb into the midst of the crowded Chamber of Deputies, but fortunately the missile burst in the air, doing little harm. M. Dupuy, by his conspicuous coolness, kept the Chamber to its work and prevented a panic, which might have easily spread through Paris with disastrous results. Vaillant was arrested on the spot and was afterward tried and convicted, and was finally guillotined February 5, 1894.

The execution of Vaillant incensed the Anarchists, who resorted to other outrages in revenge. A week after the execution a bomb was exploded in the Café Terminus, killing several people; but the bomb-thrower, Emile Henri, was arrested, tried, convicted and guillotined. Other Anarchist outrages in Paris followed; and finally the whole civilized world was shocked by the assassination of President Sadi-Carnot, who was stabbed to death in his carriage in the streets of Lyons,

The
Settle-
ment.

Election
of 1893.

Franco-
Russian
Amen-
ities.

Casimir-
Perier's
Ministry.

Vaillant's
Bomb
in the
Chamber
of
Deputies.

Other
Anarchist
Outrages.

Sunday, June 24, 1894, by Cesario Santo, an Italian Anarchist, who was at once arrested and soon afterward tried, convicted and guillotined. Addresses of sympathy poured into France from all parts of the civilized world. Queen Victoria wrote a touching letter to Madame Carnot, and the British Parliament voted an address; while the Emperor William II. of Germany greatly impressed French sentiment by generously pardoning two French officers who had been condemned to imprisonment as spies. The remains of the murdered President were honored with an imposing state funeral.

Assassination of President Sadi-Carnot.

On June 27, 1894, the National Assembly, in Congress, or joint convention, elected M. Casimir-Perier to the Presidency of the French Republic by four hundred and fifty-one votes out of eight hundred and fifty-one. M. Brisson received one hundred and ninety-five votes, M. Dupuy ninety-seven, General Février fifty-three, M. Arago twenty-seven and M. Cavaignac twelve. The Radicals and Socialists in the Assembly demanded the abolition of the Presidency, and there was a short uproar; but quiet was soon restored, and the boisterous elements subsided again for the time.

Casimir-Perier, President.

Several months before his Presidency, May, 1894, M. Casimir-Perier had been forced to resign the office of Prime Minister by a "surprise vote" on trade unionism, whereupon a new Ministry under M. Charles Dupuy was formed. Late in 1894 Captain Dreyfus, a French army officer, was condemned to imprisonment for selling confidential secrets to a foreign power.

Dupuy's Ministry.

Captain Dreyfus.

Incensed at the criticisms of his administration, President Casimir-Perier resigned January 16, 1895; and several days later the National Assembly, in Congress, or joint convention, elected M. Felix Faure to the Presidency of the French Republic, on the second ballot, amid tumultuous scenes. On the first ballot M. Felix Faure had two hundred and forty-four votes, M. Brisson three hundred and thirty-eight and M. Waldeck-Rousseau one hundred and eighty-five, while twenty-one votes were scattered among other candidates. M. Waldeck-Rousseau then withdrew in favor of M. Felix Faure, and on the second ballot M. Felix Faure received four hundred and thirty-eight votes and M. Brisson three hundred and sixty-three. Amid the tumult which followed, the Socialists shouted: "A bas la reaction! Down with the rogues! Down with the robbers! Down with the Reactionaries! To Mazas with them! Vive la Social Revolution!" The members of the Right shouted: "Down with the Commune!"

Felix Faure, President.

Upon the resignation of President Casimir-Perier the Ministry of M. Dupuy resigned, and a new ministry under M. Ribot was formed, after several fruitless efforts of other political leaders to form a Cabinet.

Ribot's Ministry

**Siamese
Evacua-
tion of
Territory.**

By the treaty between France and Siam in July, 1893, Siam was to evacuate the territory on the left bank of the Mekong river in six months, the territory to be ceded to France. In accordance with this treaty Siam evacuated that territory, in January, 1894, and made the evacuation so complete that she carried away all the inhabitants to her own territories, thus leaving to the French a country without population and following the example of an ancient tribe who migrated from their country in a body when the great Assyrian king, Sennacherib, conquered it.

**French
War in
Sene-
gambia.**

In West Africa the French and their native allies in Senegambia defeated their foes in a number of actions during 1893 and 1894. The French cannonaded the village of Niafoumé and killed a hundred natives, because the chief refused to surrender himself, January 23, 1894. But the French met with several disasters. A French detachment under Colonel Bonnier occupied Timbuctoo, January 29, 1894, but was then massacred by the natives. The native allies of the French were annihilated by Zuaregs in the plain of Kabara, December 28, 1894. The accidental conflicts between French and British troops in December, 1893, and January, 1894, have been noticed. A dispute between the French and the British about their respective territories in West Africa was settled by treaty in November, 1893. The next year France and Germany came to an agreement about their respective territories in the "Hinterland" of the Cameroons. The French wars with the natives in this portion of Western Africa continued for a number of years.

**French
War in
Mada-
gascar.**

Late in 1894 the French in Madagascar became involved in hostilities with the Hovas and Malagasys, with whom they so often had been at war. The Hovas bombarded Tamatave, while French warships bombarded the Hova position there. The French gained some successes. The French government sent an expedition under Generals Duchesne and Metzinger to Madagascar to chastise the Hovas and the Malagasys. In the spring of 1895 this expedition defeated the Hovas and the Malagasys and advanced against Antananarivo, the capital of the island. General Duchesne met with very little resistance in his advance toward the capital, forcing the Malagasys to evacuate Andriba after a slight action, August 21, 1895, and entering Antananarivo on October 21, 1895, after several days' fighting; a treaty of peace being signed on the same day by which the Hovas and the Malagasys acknowledged a French protectorate over the island of Madagascar. During the entire campaign the French troops found a far deadlier enemy in the sickly climate of the island than in the Hova and Malagasy troops, losing only twenty men in battle and about six thousand by sickness.

**Victories
of
General
Duchesne.**

**Occupation
of
Antana-
narivo.**

**French
Protect-
orate.**

General Duchesne's brilliant conquest of Madagascar did not save M. Ribot's Ministry from overthrow, as its political opponents complained because the treaty provided only for a French protectorate, not for annexation, and because of the dreadful mortality in the expedition from the sickly climate; and when threatened with the usual Radical-Royalist combination M. Ribot was forced to resign, October 28, 1895, and his Cabinet was succeeded by a Radical Ministry under M. Bourgeois.

**Fall of
Ribot's
Ministry.**

**Ministry
of Bour-
geois.**

Late in 1895 there was a short dispute between France and Brazil concerning the boundary between French Guiana and Brazil; but the trouble soon subsided, and friendly relations were restored between the great European republic and the great South American republic, both of which afterward settled the boundary dispute amicably. The controversy between France and Great Britain relative to the boundary between Siam and French Indo-China was still unsettled during 1895; but, by a treaty negotiated with China in that year, France obtained a rectification of the frontier between China and French Indo-China, with considerable trade advantages.

**French
Colonial
Boundary
Disputes.**

In April, 1896, France had another change of Cabinets, when the Radical Ministry of M. Bourgeois was compelled to resign in consequence of a rupture with the Senate on the question of the Madagascar credits, which the Senate refused to vote until they were proposed by a Cabinet having the confidence of both branches of the National Assembly, whereupon a new Ministry under M. Meline came into power; and this Ministry soon declared Madagascar to be a French colony, but grave troubles in the island ceased only when General Gallieni became the French Governor of Madagascar.

**Meline's
Ministry.**

**French
Annexa-
tion of
Mada-
gascar.**

In October, 1896, the French nation was honored with a visit by the new Czar Nicholas II. of Russia, who, after his coronation, made a tour of Europe, in company with his Czarina, visiting the Emperors of Germany and Austria-Hungary and the King of Denmark at their respective capitals and Queen Victoria and Lord Salisbury at Balmoral, in the Highlands of Scotland; after which the Czar and Czarina visited President Faure at Paris, where they were entertained by the most brilliant and imposing festivities, which were continued at the Palace of Versailles, and which finally ended with a military review at Chalons-sur-Marne in which eighty thousand French troops participated.

**The
Czar's
Visit to
France.**

In August, 1897, President Faure repaid the Czar's visit to France in 1896 by visiting Russia, being entertained very magnificently by the Czar at St. Petersburg; and on the last day of his visit, August 29th, the Czar Nicholas II., in his farewell address on board the French warship, said: "I am happy to see that your stay among us creates a new tie between our friendly and allied nations." As the French Presi-

**President
Faure's
Visit to
Russia.**

dent had used words of a similar import a moment earlier, it was apparent that the Franco-Russian alliance had been strengthened.

**French
Conquest
in Africa
and the
Fashoda
Incident.**

For a number of years the French had been extending their dominion in Africa by conquest, acquiring possession of the Sahara, the Western Soudan and the upper Niger region, subduing many powerful native chiefs in a series of wars in which some bloody conflicts were fought, and coming in close touch with the British dominion in the lower Niger region; and several battles had been fought by accident between British and French expeditions, each mistaking the other for hostile native war parties. Finally, in the fall of 1898, as we have already observed in the later British history, the forces of France and Great Britain came together unexpectedly at Fashoda, on the upper Nile, where Major Marchand and General Kitchener had their well-known meeting in September, 1898—the incident which produced an Anglo-French crisis of two months in the fall of that year, Great Britain firmly insisting upon France's withdrawal from the disputed region; a demand with which France finally complied, M. Delcassé, as French Minister of Foreign Affairs, very skillfully and gracefully getting his country out of a troublesome and threatening dilemma.

**Case of
Captain
Dreyfus.**

The case of Captain Alfred Dreyfus, a Jew in the French army, who several years before had been tried and convicted for selling French military secrets to the German army, started an agitation which in 1898 and 1899 occupied the attention of the French nation almost to the exclusion of everything else. For several years the accused and convicted captain had been serving his sentence of confinement on Ile du Diable (Devil's Is'land), on the coast of French Guiana, in South America; the captain and his family, his kinsmen and his nationality everywhere asserting his innocence and maintaining that his punishment was the result of race and religious prejudice and of a design to screen other guilty military officials by making him a scapegoat.

**Trial and
Punish-
ment of
M. Zola.**

This Dreyfus agitation began in the fall of 1897 and reached huge dimension in January, 1898, as a result of M. Zola's letter in M. Clemenceau's journal, *L' Aurore*, on January 13th, in which the punishment of Captain Dreyfus was denounced as an act of the rankest injustice and which caused an immense sensation. M. Zola was prosecuted at once for libel in saying that the judges who had acquitted Esterhazy, another French military officer, whom the friends of Dreyfus accused of being the real culprit, had acquitted him by official order. Zola's trial lasted sixteen days, February 7–23, 1898, and excited the interest of the whole civilized world. The evidence was strongly in favor of Zola's contention that Dreyfus had been condemned illegally, that the facts against him had been without significance and that the *bordereau*, which was the chief evidence against him, was not

written by Dreyfus, but by Esterhazy. Against these statements the General Staff of the French army put forward General de Pellieux, who gave the jury a summary of a certain correspondence between the Italian and German military attachés in Paris, Panizzardi and Schwartzkoppen, in which Dreyfus was mentioned as their agent. General de Boisdeffre, the Chief of Staff, next came forward and declared on his honor that the correspondence was authentic, also threatening the jury with the resignation of the whole Staff if Zola was acquitted. Confirmatory evidence was given by Colonel Henry, the Chief of the Intelligence Department, thus causing the jury to bring in a verdict of guilty against M. Zola, who was condemned to the maximum penalty. He appealed, and the trial was quashed on an informality. Again the military authorities prosecuted him, and he was condemned by default, whereupon he left France and finally retired to England, where he decided to remain until the Court of Cassation should decide on the main question, which involved not so much the guilt or innocence of Dreyfus, but the legality or illegality of his condemnation.

In the meantime the attention of France and of the whole civilized world was becoming concentrated more and more upon the French War Office. Suspicion became very general that the evidence against Dreyfus had been fabricated by wholesale, and the German and Italian governments found it necessary to make formal statements that they never had relations of any kind with Captain Dreyfus. Among the *Intellectuals*, as the educated classes of France were called, a determination arose to probe the matter to the bottom and to vindicate the honor of the French nation instead of the honor of the French army. The elections in France in the summer of 1898 led to the resignation of M. Meline's Ministry, which was succeeded by a Radical Ministry under M. Brisson, whose Minister of War, M. Cavaignac, was in exceedingly high favor with President Faure and the Anti-Semite press. M. Cavaignac announced that he himself was resolved to investigate the Dreyfus affair with the aid of all the papers preserved in the War Office, and when he had done so he made a speech on July 7th in which he vigorously condemned Dreyfus as guilty, his speech being placarded afterward by a unanimous vote. He maintained his denunciation by three pieces of evidence—a pretended confession made by Dreyfus to Captain Lebrun-Renault; two authentic documents relating to the spy D., and the alleged Panizzardi-Schwartzkoppen correspondence. Nobody believed in Captain Lebrun-Renault, and the alleged spy D. was not Captain Dreyfus. The reputations of the orators were soon shattered by subsequent developments. About the middle of August, 1898, M. Cavaignac himself extracted from Co'nel Henry, who had played so great a part in the Zola trial, the confession that Henry himself had forged

Scandals
in the
French
War
Office.

Brisson's
Ministry.

the Panizzardi-Schwartzkoppen correspondence and two other documents. Colonel Henry was arrested and imprisoned in Mont Valérien, where he was found dead that night with his throat cut, in the same manner in which another forger in the employ of the War Office, Lemer cier-Picard, had been found a corpse hanging in his room in March of the same year. These tragic occurrences created a most profound sensation.

**Revision
of the
Dreyfus
Case.**

The discovery of Colonel Henry's forgeries made the revision of the Dreyfus case inevitable; but even this revision was not effected until the most obstinate resistance on the part of the army had been overcome, involving a change of Ministry and the resignations of three Ministers of War. On October 25, 1898, there was rioting in the streets of Paris, recalling the worst days of the Boulanger agitation. The excitement spread to the Chamber of Deputies, where General Chanoine, the Minister of War, had publicly repudiated his colleagues in the Cabinet; after which the Ministry of M. Brisson was forced to resign by a hostile vote of the Chamber of Deputies, on the ground that he refused to "put an end to the campaign of insult against the army." But M. Brisson had already taken the decisive step of sending the Dreyfus papers to the Court of Cassation, with which action he and his successor did not interfere, so that the way was made for the revision of the Dreyfus case, which went on after that time. M. Brisson's Ministry was succeeded by a new Ministry under M. Dupuy. The Court of Cassation, with closed doors, was investigating the Dreyfus case and examined many important witnesses; and this Court was allowed to examine the *secret dossier*, after making elaborate conditions with M. de Freycinet, the Minister of War. One of the most painful incidents of the Dreyfus case was the arrest and rigorous imprisonment of Colonel Picquart by the military authorities on charges of breach of discipline and even on charges of forgery which were scouted by his friends. This treatment of Colonel Picquart aroused intense indignation in France and in other countries. Colonel Picquart's friends regarded him as a hero and a martyr, and there was no doubt that he sacrificed his professional military career to his sense of right and justice; while the military authorities of France—embracing the War Office, the army officers and General Zurlinden, the Military Governor of Paris—were pursuing him with savage vindictiveness. In the meantime the whole Dreyfus affair continued to cause the most acute and dangerous differences of opinion and feeling in French society, and there were misgivings lest the whole matter might end in a military revolution. The Dreyfus case excited intense interest throughout the civilized world, and outside of France the public sympathy with the persecuted Captain Dreyfus was well-nigh universal, as it was generally be-

**Dupuy's
Ministry.**

lieved that he was innocent and had been sacrificed to screen the real culprits.

With the opening of the year 1899 the Dreyfus case was before the Criminal Chamber of the Court of Cassation, to which was assigned the examination of the question whether Dreyfus should or should not have a new trial. On January 9th it was announced that the President of the Criminal Chamber, M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire, had resigned. Thenceforth during the progress of the case the world beheld a judge attacking his colleagues with merciless vituperation and with all kinds of ingenious extravagance because they did not hold his views of military justice by refusing to review the case. At that time President Faure, in the Elysée, was secretly exercising strong pressure against the revision of the Dreyfus case. M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire's charges made so much impression on President Faure and M. Dupuy's Ministry that near the end of January the Ministry introduced and the Assembly passed a bill taking the question of revision out of the hands of the Criminal Section of the Court of Cassation and placing it in the hands of the whole Court. The opponents of Dreyfus, particularly M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire, had hoped to bring the matter before the whole Court of Cassation so as to secure a majority against Dreyfus, as it was known that the majority of the Criminal Section of the Court were in favor of the accused captain's claim. But a number of very remarkable events occurred for some weeks which wholly altered the situation. On the morning of February 17, 1899, the world was startled by the news that President Faure had died suddenly from a stroke of apoplexy the night before. This shocking news was so wholly unexpected that the enemies of Dreyfus were unable to mature their plans. The two Chambers of the National Assembly met in Congress, or joint convention, at Versailles, and chose M. Loubet, the President of the Senate, to the office of President of the French Republic by a vote of four hundred and eighty-three against two hundred and seventy-nine for M. Melin.

M. Loubet's election to the Presidency of the Republic was of vast help to the friends of Captain Dreyfus, whose opponents were so furious with rage that on two occasions they made dangerous but impotent exhibitions of their chagrin. On the occasion of President Faure's funeral, M. Déroulède, the "patriotic" agitator and poet, made an effort to induce General Roget to march to the Elysée; but that general declined the perilous adventure, although he was a bitter anti-Dreyfusard. At the Anteuil races, in the spring of 1899, an organized band of young men of high family connections committed a great personal outrage upon President Loubet because he was in favor of a revision of the Dreyfus case; but the effect of this outrage was to in-

**The
Dreyfus
Case
in the
Court of
Cassa-
tion.**

**Sudden
Death of
President
Faure.**

**Loubet
Elected
President.**

**Rage
of the
Anti-
Dreyfus-
ards.**

crease the new President's popularity; and one of the aristocratic ruffians, Comte Christiani, was punished with a sentence of four years' imprisonment. The fierce language of the *Libre Parole*, *La Orotz* and other anti-Dreyfusard and anti-clerical journals were adding to the moral disgust entertained by all quiet and respectable people in France for the course of the anti-Dreyfusards.

**Report in
Favor of
Revision.**

The Paris *Figaro* made a very powerful appeal to the reason of the French people by publishing the verbatim report of the depositions before the Criminal Chamber of the Court of Cassation, thus making a deep impression on the popular mind in France. As the tide was rising in favor of a revision of the Dreyfus case, M. de Freycinet resigned as War Minister early in May, 1899; and before the close of that month M. Ballot-Beaupré brought up before the Court of Cassation his report in favor of revision. On July 3d the whole Court unanimously adopted the same conclusion, annulled the previous judgment and ordered the imprisoned captain to be retried by the court-martial at Rennes, the old capital of Brittany. The prisoner was immediately released from his confinement on the Ile du Diable and was placed on board the cruiser *Sfax*, which landed him on the coast of France in Quiberon Bay on the last night of June, 1899.

**Waldeck-
Rous-
seau's
Ministry.**

In the middle of July, 1899, M. Dupuy's Ministry was driven from power because it had failed to protect President Loubet from personal outrage; and a new Ministry under M. Waldeck-Rousseau came into power after a crisis of ten days' duration, with two such strong men and avowed political opponents as General de Galliffet and M. Millerand, the former a great soldier and the latter an avowed Socialist.

**Second
Trial and
Convic-
tion of
Captain
Dreyfus.**

The second trial of Captain Dreyfus began in the Lycée at Rennes, August 7, 1899, before a court-martial composed of Colonel Jouaust and six other officers. The Government Commissary was Major Carrière; and the prisoner was defended by two eminent lawyers—Maitre Labori, the eloquent advocate who had defended Zola, and Maitre Demange, a well-known leader of the Paris bar. The well-known arguments of the prosecution about the honor of the army as taking precedence of the question of guilt or innocence were advanced by the General Staff and their friends, particularly by Generals Mercier and Roget. Captain Lebrun-Renault reported the flimsy story of the prisoner's so-called confession. The handwriting experts, especially M. Bertillon, gave a wild exposition of their science, amid the world's laughter. M. Casimir-Perier published for the first time the history of the very awkward diplomatic incident to which the affair had given rise during his term as President of the Republic. Captain Freystatter, one of the judges of the former court-martial, proved the illegality that had been committed in the first trial. M. de Freycinet

offered himself as a witness and made an insinuating, irrelevant speech. Colonel Picquart again showed his moral courage and his sincerity. Early in the trial an incident occurred showing the willingness of the baser anti-Dreyfusards to resort to violence—the attempted assassination of M. Labori, who was shot in the back, as he was on his way to the court one morning, by an assassin who effected his escape with the obvious aid of some of the bystanders. Very fortunately, the wound was not serious, and in a few days the able advocate resumed his part in the trial. During the last week M. Labori tried to obtain the evidence of the two foreign military attachés, even telegraphing to the German Emperor to permit Colonel Schwartzkoppen to appear. This request was refused by the Emperor, and the court declared itself wholly incompetent to send a commission to examine the German and Italian military attachés; but the German government went out of its way to publish in the official portion of the *Gazette of September 8th* a solemn statement that it “had never, directly or indirectly, had any relations with Captain Dreyfus.” But neither this German official statement nor the demonstrated absence of proofs against Captain Dreyfus nor any other argument availed against the false ideas of military honor and discipline which dominated the court-martial. Accordingly, on September 9, 1899, after a deliberation of an hour and a half, the judges, by a vote of five to two, found Captain Dreyfus guilty, with extenuating circumstances; and he was sentenced to ten years’ imprisonment. The verdict of the court was received with indignant protests throughout the civilized world, especially in England, Germany and the United States. The French government showed its appreciation of the general worldwide public sentiment by pardoning Captain Dreyfus soon afterward, and he was liberated and allowed to rejoin his family. General de Galliffet issued an order of the day to the French army declaring the incident closed, and thereafter no sensational developments in this remarkable case occurred until July 12, 1906, when Dreyfus was vindicated by the French Court of Last Resort and restored to the army at a great military parade held in his honor and as a public record of his vindication. In reviewing the testimony the court declared the charges to be unfounded, that the *bordereaux* was the work of Esterhazy, that no officer of the general staff and only a regimental officer such as Esterhazy could have transmitted the information contained therein, and that the Rennes court-martial failed to hear testimony establishing Dreyfus’s innocence.

An incident of the Dreyfus affair was the case of M. Déroulède and some of his friends, who were acquitted of the charge of sedition after the incident of President Faure’s funeral, but who were again arrested in August, after the seizure of certain compromising documents, on a charge of conspiracy to overthrow the Republic. The plot seemed to have been a somewhat contemptible effort of the Royalists to hunt for trouble.

Labori
Wounded.

Dreyfus
Again
Convicted;
Subse-
quently
Pardoned

Dreyfus
Vindicated
and
Restored.

Closing
Incidents
of the
Dreyfus
Affair.

**Murder of
Colonel
Klobb.**

In July, 1899, a lamentable event occurred in the French Soudan. This was the murder of Colonel Klobb by a force under Captains Voulet and Chanoine, whom he had been sent to supersede in consequence of their objectionable proceedings.

**Anti-
British
Feeling.**

The last months of 1899 were characterized by a violent anti-British sentiment in France, as in Germany, on account of the popular sympathy with the Boers in their struggle with the British in South Africa; even Her Majesty Queen Victoria being the victim of violent abuse on the part of the French press.

**World's
Fair.**

In the summer of 1900 Paris had its fifth international exposition, or world's fair, the others having been in 1855, 1867, 1878 and 1889.

**Amnesty
Bill.**

The only political event was the passage of an Amnesty Bill through the National Assembly, which the Ministry of M. Waldeck-Rousseau succeeded in carrying in spite of the vigorous opposition of the anti-Dreyfusards. The closing part of the year 1900 was signalized by the enthusiastic popular receptions given to ex-President Paul Krüger at Marseilles and Paris.

**Kruger's
Visit.**

The new struggle against clericalism which the Ministry of M. Waldeck-Rousseau waged against the Roman Catholic Church involved the French Republic in a bitter controversy with the Pope, who resented the hostile attitude of the Republic toward Church schools in France.

**Struggle
with
Clerical-
ism.**

During the years 1900 and 1901 France was unusually tranquil at home, after the violent agitation of the previous three years concerning the Dreyfus affair. During these few tranquil years France even escaped a change of Ministry; the Cabinet of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, which was formed in 1899, having passed through the years 1900 and 1901 and being still in office at the opening of the year 1902—an unusual circumstance, as there have generally been two or three Ministries each year during the existence of the Third French Republic, which had now covered a period of more than thirty years. The Republic itself had survived every storm and seemed firmly established. During 1901 France was honored with another visit from the Czar Nicholas II. of Russia, who was brilliantly entertained by President Loubet and heartily welcomed by the French people.

**Years of
Tran-
quillity.**

The new struggle against clericalism which the Ministry of M. Waldeck-Rousseau waged against the Roman Catholic Church involved the French Republic in a bitter controversy with the Pope, who resented the hostile attitude of the Republic toward Church schools in France.

**Stability
of the
Third
French
Republic.**

The Republic itself had survived every storm and seemed firmly established. During 1901 France was honored with another visit from the Czar Nicholas II. of Russia, who was brilliantly entertained by President Loubet and heartily welcomed by the French people.

**The
Czar's
Visit.**

The elections in France in April and May, 1902, for members of the Chamber of Deputies resulted overwhelmingly for the Ministerial candidates, three-fourths of whom were chosen, thus giving the Ministry in power a large majority in the Chamber of Deputies and emphasizing the fact that the Third French Republic is becoming more firmly established with the progress of time. President Loubet even went so far as to say that "France is now unanimously Republican," calling attention to the fact that not a single candidate was nominated as a Royalist or an Imperialist.

**Election
of 1902.**

In May, 1902, President Loubet visited Russia, thus returning the Czar's visit to France in 1901. The French President were received with great honor at every Russian city which he visited. At Tsarskoe Selo, on May 21st, in company with the Czar, the Czarina and the Dowager Czarina, President Loubet reviewed the Russian troops; after which the Czar toasted the French army. The celebrations in St. Petersburg were very elaborate, and the French and Russian soldiers fraternized continually. During his visit President Loubet placed a wreath on the tomb of the Czar Alexander III. and gave one hundred thousand francs to the charities of St. Petersburg. At the Winter Palace, President Loubet gave a reception to the Russian Ministers and various deputations, which presented him with addresses on the benefits of the Franco-Russian alliance, to which he replied by expressing France's gratitude for the sympathy extended to her President. The Mayors of St. Petersburg and Moscow received him with addresses and presented him with albums showing the views of their respective cities. On his way home he visited the royal family of Denmark at Copenhagen.

**President
Loubet's
Visit to
Russia.**

The Ministry of M. Waldeck-Rousseau resigned on June 3, 1902, and on June 7th a new Cabinet under M. Combes was formed, in which the able diplomat, M. Delcassé, held the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs, a post which he filled so satisfactorily in a number of Cabinets. The new Ministry closed about two thousand Roman Catholic Church schools in France. In many portions of France the people sided with the priests and nuns in resisting the action of the authorities in closing the schools, so that troops had to be employed to enforce the decrees of the government. In some places the Sisters' schools were barricaded with barbed wire and pointed stakes and with walls of masonry. In Brittany fifteen thousand peasants made a pilgrimage to Folgoët to protest against the ejection of the nuns and to invoke divine punishment on M. Combes for his sacrilege in warring on the Church and its nuns and closing their schools, but the overwhelming military force in Brittany prevented any hostile resistance to the government's action in this matter. The Ministry's action was sustained by the Chamber of Deputies by a decisive vote on March 18, 1903. In September, 1902, Paris received a visit from the Shah of Persia, who was touring Europe during the summer and fall of that year.

**Ministry
of M.
Combes.**

**Church
Schools
Forcibly
Closed.**

A serious dispute between France and Turkey on the quays question, in which a French company was interested, was settled by a convention between the two governments in September, 1901, which convention was to continue a year. On the expiration of this convention, in September, 1902, the Turkish Minister of Public Works proposed a renewal of the convention for another year; but the French company

**Dispute
with
Turkey.**

refused to consider the proposal, declaring that Turkey's project to repurchase the property had lapsed and demanding the immediate enjoyment of its privileges under the concession; and the French ambassador in Constantinople vigorously sustained the company's claim.

French Coal Miners' Strike. While the great coal miners' strike of 1902 was still on in the United States, the French Miners' Federation declared a general strike in the coal mines of France, and almost fifty thousand coal miners quit work, thus causing the greatest inconvenience to the French public. The question came before the Chamber of Deputies, and Prime Minister Combes said he would support a bill in the interest of the miners and favored arbitration between the miners and their employers. President Loubet imitated President Roosevelt's example in the coal miners' strike in Pennsylvania by appointing a board of arbitrators, who decided against an increase of wages on the ground that the prices of coal did not warrant such increase; and most of the strikers accepted the board's decision and resumed work. In 1903 King Victor Emmanuel II. of Italy visited France and was brilliantly entertained by President Loubet at Paris.

Anglo-French Treaties.

On October 8, 1903, an arbitration treaty was signed between France and Great Britain for the settlement of disputes between the two nations. This treaty was speedily ratified by the two governments. On April 8, 1904, the two nations signed a colonial treaty for the adjustment of differences between them respecting their colonial dominions in various parts of the world, one of the most important questions thus disposed of being the French Shore Question in Newfoundland. An arbitration treaty between France and the United States was signed at Washington on November 1, 1904.

President Loubet's Visit to Rome.

The efforts of France for the complete secularization of her schools involved that Republic in a spirited controversy with the Pope. The strained relations between France and the Head of the Church were heightened by a visit of President Loubet to King Victor Emmanuel II. of Italy in Rome in April, 1904, to repay the Italian king's visit to the French President in Paris in October, 1903; in which the Pope was wholly ignored by the official head of the French Republic. Half a million people in the streets of Rome greeted President Loubet, in whose honor a great naval review was held in the Bay of Naples on April 29th.

France and the Concordat.

The strained relations between France and the Pope finally resulted in the recall of the French ambassador from the Vatican in May, 1904, and there were loud calls in France for the revision of the Concordat, or treaty with the Pope, and for the entire separation of Church and State in France. The Radicals and the Socialists in the Chamber of Deputies were especially vehement in calling for an entire repudiation

of papal pretensions in France. The real extent of the tension between the French Republic and the Pope was disclosed by violent debates in the Chamber of Deputies. The Pope called upon French Roman Catholic bishops to tender their resignations; but Prime Minister Combes forbade their bishops complying with the Pope's request, claiming that such action was a violation of the Concordat. The Pope's threat to dismiss the French Roman Catholic bishops was answered by the French government's threat to declare the Concordat annulled, thus severing all connection between Church and State in France. The Papal Nuncio finally left Paris, thus further emphasizing the tension between the French Republic and the Holy See. Finally the Archbishop of Rheims was summoned to Rome, and through him negotiations were conducted for a revision of the Concordat.

Late in 1904 a new question began to disturb the foreign relations of France, whose interests in Morocco were of a very important nature. With the view of catering to the anti-foreign prejudices of his subjects, the Sultan of Morocco dismissed all the foreign attachés to the Moorish court and army, including even the French military mission. This action of the Moorish Sultan came too late to please his rebellious subjects and at once involved him in serious trouble with France; and all the foreign legations were on the point of leaving Fez, the Moorish capital, when another rebellion broke out in Morocco, and Sultan Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz reversed himself and resumed his compliant attitude toward the foreign powers. By the Anglo-French agreement respecting Africa, France was practically given control over Morocco, thus increasing French influence on the African continent. Already France's possessions in Africa embraced Algeria, Tunis, the Sahara, Dahomey, Senegal, the Gambia region, the Ivory Coast, French Soudan, French Guinea, French Kongo, Timbuctoo, the upper Niger region and the island of Madagascar.

The Ministry of M. Combes resigned and a new Ministry under M. Rouvier was formed on January 24, 1905. The tension between France and the Pope still continued, and M. Rouvier's Ministry was as determined to assert the claims of the French Republic against the pretensions of the Roman Catholic Church as had been the Cabinet of M. Combes. The sentiment in favor of a complete separation of Church and State made rapid growth, on the ground that a State-supported Church is incompatible with republican institutions. Protestants as well as Catholics in France would have lost by a separation of Church and State, as it would have deprived all Churches of State financial support; and all Churches in France therefore looked with apprehension upon the bill which had been pending in the Chamber of Deputies for some months for the complete separation of Church

**The
Morocco
Question
and Its
Import.**

**Rouvier's
Ministry
and the
Contro-
versy
with the
Pope.**

and State in the French Republic. Thus the Concordat was still in force.

Strained
Relations
with
Germany
about
Morocco.

The visit of the German Emperor William II. to Morocco at a time when France was endeavoring to establish her supremacy in that country had a tendency to disturb the feelings of the French government and people, and an interview between King Edward VII. and President Loubet had a tendency to strengthen the Anglo-French agreement concerning Morocco. In a speech in the German Reichstag the German Chancellor, Count von Bülow, intimated that Germany would not consent to France's paramountcy in Morocco beyond a certain limit. Notwithstanding Germany's opposition, France intended to exercise all the power in Morocco conferred upon her by her agreement with Great Britain. Germany's course tended to strengthen the Moorish Sultan's attitude toward foreign domination in his dominions, and the situation became interesting if not critical. M. Delcassé's resignation as French Minister of Foreign Affairs, on June 6, 1905, which post he had held for eight years, was a triumph for the Emperor of Germany as it was the skillful diplomacy of this able French diplomat that gave the French Republic its strong position in Morocco.

SECTION XX.—GERMANY TO 1908.

Imperial
Rescript
in
Germany.

At the opening of the newly-elected German Reichstag, November 17, 1881, Prince Bismarck read the speech from the throne. The Emperor's speech created much surprise. The Liberals were disappointed at his ignoring the Liberal majority. The German people were astounded at the government's arbitrary policy. On January 4, 1882, an imperial rescript, countersigned by Prince Bismarck, was addressed to the Prussian Ministry, declaring the Emperor's right to direct the government of Prussia. This imperial rescript was regarded as an attack upon the Prussian constitution and was severely denounced by the Prussian press. The rescript created a profound sensation throughout Prussia. The Prussian people supported their representatives in the Prussian Landtag. The *Allgemeine Zeitung* was seized for characterizing the imperial rescript as a *coup d'état*. In a debate in the German Reichstag on the budget January 24, 1882, Prince Bismarck reiterated the doctrines of the imperial rescript, for which he was specially thanked by the Emperor William I. Bismarck's speech created a great uproar in the Reichstag.

Bis-
marck's
Repres-
sion.

In 1882 and 1883 Prince Bismarck endeavored to make the Anti-Socialist law more stringent, but there was considerable opposition to



WILLIAM II OF GERMANY



NAPOLEON III OF FRANCE



HUMBERT I OF ITALY



VICTORIA OF ENGLAND



OSCAR II OF SWEDEN



FRANZ JOSEF I OF AUSTRIA



WILHELMINA I OF HOLLAND



ALFONSO XIII OF SPAIN

his tyrannical repressive measures, and Socialism grew rapidly in spite of all repressive measures.

The intimacy of France and Russia, and the reorganization and strengthening of the French army under the direction of General Boulanger, when Minister of War in M. de Freycinet's third Cabinet in 1886, greatly alarmed Prince Bismarck and his fellow Ministers in Germany. The German Reichstag rejected Bismarck's bill for an increase of the German army on a peace footing by an additional force of forty-one thousand men for seven years, but was willing to vote that contingent for three years. The "man of blood and iron" was not to be thwarted in his designs; and he accordingly dissolved the Reichstag, January 14, 1887, and ordered new elections. These elections were held in February, 1887; and, although Bismarck's opponents made great efforts, the elections resulted in a victory for the "Iron Chancellor," who secured a majority in the new Reichstag. The old members who sustained Bismarck's policy were generally reelected, while many seats were won from his opponents. When the new Reichstag convened, Bismarck easily carried out his policy, and the Reichstag readily voted the increase of the peace establishment of the German army by an addition of forty-one thousand men for seven years. The German Minister of War said that both France and Russia must be watched, and he expressed greater fear of the French army than of the Russian army because of France's superior system of mobilization.

The ninetieth birthday of the Emperor William I., March 22, 1887, was greeted in Berlin by the ringing of bells and general rejoicings. In the meantime his son and heir, the Crown Prince Frederick William, was dying slowly of an incurable disease of the throat. The best medical skill was unable to check the progress of the malady. The Emperor William I. died March 9, 1888, at the age of almost ninety-one; and the Crown Prince succeeded him as King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany with the title of **FREDERICK III.**

The Emperor Frederick III. was doomed to follow his illustrious father to the grave in a very short time. At his accession his disease was advanced so far that he was unable to speak. As he was a man of liberal views, he desired that the suffrage be free and untrammelled, not subject to the influence and pressure of the government. His opposition to the exercise of government pressure in the elections involved the new Emperor in a contest with Prince Bismarck, whose arbitrary and tyrannical policy he had always opposed and with whom he had never been on pleasant terms. Bismarck and the entire German Ministry threatened to resign, and a political crisis was feared. To the misfortune of the German people, who were sincerely attached to the new Emperor on account of his liberal political views, his malady

**Bis-
marck's
Military
Bill.**

**German
Election
of 1887
and the
Army
Bill.**

**Last
Years of
William
I.**

**The
Crown
Prince's
Malady.**

**Short
Reign of
Frederick
III., A. D.
1888.**

**William
II.**

carried him off after a short reign of three months, June 15, 1888; and his son WILLIAM II. became King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany.

**His
Views
and
Policy.**

William II. did not entertain the liberal political views of his father, but rather held the ideas of his grandfather and Prince Bismarck in favor of arbitrary and despotic government. He and the Iron Chancellor were therefore in perfect accord in the policy to be pursued in the future. He had no love for his mother Victoria, the daughter of Queen Victoria of Great Britain and Ireland. He therefore sanctioned the harsh treatment which Bismarck advised toward his mother, the Empress Dowager of Germany and Princess Royal of Great Britain, who thus became a virtual prisoner in her own palace. Some remarks which the new Emperor made upon his accession were not reassuring to his subjects, but caused dismay and alarm throughout Germany. Perceiving the error which he had thus made, he was more guarded in his expressions thereafter; but it was evident that he meant to be sovereign in fact as well as in name—that he desired to govern as well as to reign.

**Election
of 1890.**

**Bis-
marck's
Retire-
ment.**

**Chancel-
lor von
Caprivi.**

The elections in Germany, in March, 1890, for a new Reichstag, resulted in large gains for the Radical, or Freisinnige party and the Socialists. In the same month Prince Bismarck, the Iron Chancellor, who had directed the destinies of Prussia for twenty-eight years and of united Germany for nineteen years, quarreled with the young Emperor William II. and resigned all his offices and retired to private life. General von Caprivi succeeded him as Chancellor of the German Empire and as Prime Minister of Prussia. Count Herbert Bismarck, the old Chancellor's son, at the same time resigned the Prussian Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

**German
East
Africa.**

In the meantime German colonies were established in Eastern Africa, under the auspices of the German East Africa Company. In the fall of 1889 a German military expedition under Dr. Peters, on its way to the relief of Emin Pasha, was massacred. Emin Pasha, who had been rescued by Mr. Stanley and the efforts of the British, was no sooner found than he entered the German service and proceeded to extend German commerce and German influence among the natives of Eastern and Central Africa. Major von Wissmann led German military expeditions against hostile native tribes, defeating many of them; but on August 30, 1890, a German party was massacred by the natives of Witu. In October, 1890, a British squadron from Zanzibar, took Witu by storm after the Sultan had refused to give up the murderers of the German party. By the Anglo-German agreement in the summer of 1890, Germany abandoned the Hinterland, in Eastern Africa, to Great Britain, in exchange for the isle of Heligoland, near the North

Sea coast of Germany. In January, 1892, the Germans met with another disaster in Eastern Africa in a conflict with the natives.

The Emperor William II. had many meetings with other crowned heads. In October, 1889, the Czar of Russia visited him in Berlin. In November, 1889, William II. visited the Austrian Emperor at Vienna. In June, 1890, he visited the King of Denmark. In August following he visited England, where he met with a grand reception from his royal grandmother and her subjects; and in the same month he visited the Czar of Russia. In September of the same year he visited the Austrian Emperor in Silesia and at Vienna. In June, 1892, the Czar Alexander III. again visited the German Emperor at Berlin, and King Humbert of Italy visited him the same month.

**Visits of
Emperor
William
II.**

In the meantime William II. had taken great interest in the labor question and seemed desirous of ameliorating labor's condition. May day, 1890, was signalized by immense labor demonstrations throughout Europe, and the day was looked upon with apprehension by the sovereigns of Europe, but all passed off quietly. During February, 1892, there were great labor riots in Berlin, which were finally suppressed by the military under the personal direction of the young Emperor himself, who boldly faced the rioters.

**His
Interest
in the
Labor
Question.**

King Charles of Württemberg died in 1891, and was succeeded by his son, WILLIAM II. In March, 1892, there was a Cabinet crisis in Prussia over Caprivi's new education bill, which was considered too favorable to the Roman Catholics. Caprivi resigned the Prussian Premiership, in which he was succeeded by Count von Eulenberg, but he remained Chancellor of the German Empire.

**Cabinet
Crisis in
Prussia.**

In May, 1893, the Reichstag rejected a bill, which had been under consideration many months, providing for an increase of the German army; whereupon the Emperor dissolved the Reichstag and appealed to the country for popular approval. The general election in Germany, in June, 1893, returned a majority of thirty-three in the Reichstag for the Emperor, the numbers being two hundred and five supporters of the Emperor and one hundred and seventy-two opponents of his policy. The chief features of the election were the success of the Anti-Semites, or anti-Jewish party, and of the Social Democrats. The Anti-Semites, who had only six members in the preceding Reichstag, elected seventeen members in the new Reichstag; and the Social Democrats, who had thirty-six members in the preceding Reichstag, elected forty-four members in the new Reichstag. The increase in the Social Democratic vote was surprising. One million seven hundred and eighty-six thousand votes were cast for that party, an increase of over three hundred and fifty thousand in three years, while the Anti-Semites gained about two hundred thousand. An unpleasant feature of the election was the sec-

**Election
of 1893
and New
Army
Bill.**

tional division between Northern and Southern Germany, as Bavaria, Württemberg and Baden declared almost unanimously against the Emperor's army bills. Soon after the meeting of the Reichstag the army bills were carried through, and went into operation October 1, 1893, thus increasing the standing army of Germany on a peace footing by seventy thousand men and raising it to four hundred and seventy-nine thousand men, the increase costing about seventy million marks.

Relations
of Prince
Bismarck
and
Emperor
William
II.

Prince Bismarck, the redoubtable ex-Chancellor, speaking through his organ in the Hamburg press, the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, opposed the bills; but his opposition was directed rather to the Emperor's foreign policy than to his home measures. In the fall of 1893 Prince Bismarck was ill for a time at Kissingen, and the Emperor William II. wrote him a graceful letter offering him the imperial hospitality in a better climate than that of Friedrichsruhe, but the ex-Chancellor declined the offer, and his convalescence proceeded by his own fireside. Early in 1894 a formal reconciliation took place between the young Emperor and the venerable ex-Chancellor, who visited the Emperor at the imperial palace in Berlin on the latter's birthday, January 26, 1894, being welcomed and cheered by the multitude as he drove to the imperial palace.

Germano-
Russian
Commer-
cial
Treaty.

For some months Germany and Russia had been waging a "tariff war" against each other, each imposing retaliatory duties upon the imports from the other; but both found this policy so disastrous in its effects that they finally agreed to a commercial treaty, in February, 1894, each agreeing to lower the duties on imports from the other, and the treaty was speedily ratified by the German Reichstag. The treaty was distasteful to the Protectionist Agrarian League of Prussia; but the agitation by this league aroused the ire of the Emperor William II., who, in a speech at Königsberg, the seat of the agitation, in September, 1894, declared that "the opposition of the Prussian nobles to their monarch is a monstrous thing;" that he ruled by divine right, like his ancestors, and that it is the duty of the nobility to fall in and help him "in the serious battle against those who threaten the foundations of the state and of society."

William
II.
and the
Prussian
Nobles.

The Prussian nobles quailed before their august sovereign, like obedient and dutiful children; but when the question of preparing fresh anti-revolutionary measures came to be faced, the result was a grave crisis, which ultimately led to the resignation of both Count von Caprivi, the German Chancellor, and of Count Eulenberg, the Prussian Prime Minister, October 26, 1894. This Ministerial crisis was sudden and generally unexpected. Count von Caprivi, who had served his country with devotion and fidelity for four and a half years, retired to private life a poor man and without any expression of thanks from the

Minis-
terial
Crisis.

Caprivi's
Resigna-
tion.

Emperor, who had called him to the head of the government after breaking with the Iron Chancellor in March, 1890.

Count von Caprivi's successor as Chancellor of the German Empire was Prince Hohenlohe, Governor of Alsace-Lorraine, a Bavarian by birth and a Roman Catholic by religion, but devoted to the Empire. The new Ministry was soon somewhat discredited by an abortive attempt to prosecute some too-demonstrative Socialist members of the Reichstag. The German government was badly defeated in the elections in Württemberg early in February, 1895. The imperial government suffered another bad defeat in the rejection of the anti-revolutionary bills by the Reichstag, May 11, 1895.

The year 1894 was signalized by a treaty between Germany and France respecting the "Hinterland" (hind or back land) of the Cameroons, in Central Africa. The Germans and their native allies in Eastern and Central Africa chastised the tribes who opposed them.

The chronic struggle between the government and the Socialists in Germany assumed new phases in 1895. Many trials for *lèse majesté* were held, almost wholly for press offenses; and editors, writers and professors were sent to prison. The opening of the North Sea and Baltic Canal, in June, 1895, was the occasion of a great international naval festival, in which warships of the great nations of the world participated. The twenty-fifth anniversary of the great German victory over the French at Sedan in 1870 was celebrated with great pomp on September 1-2, 1895.

The year 1896 in Germany was signalized by a series of unfortunate court scandals, though it opened with the twenty-fifth anniversary of the birth of the new German Empire, January 18, 1871, which was celebrated with great pomp and enthusiasm on January 18, 1896. A series of incidents threw a disagreeable light upon the German imperial court; the German army in its relation with the civilian population; the secret police in its relation to the press and the great departments of state, and the illustrious Prince Bismarck in his relation to his political rivals and successors. Early in the year Herr von Kotze, an ex-Chamberlain, was assailed so bitterly by a section of the court circles that he fought several duels, himself being wounded in the first and shooting an enemy dead in the second. Soon afterward Lieutenant von Brusewitz stabbed an unarmed workingman to death in a café for some trifling provocation, and was sentenced to imprisonment for the crime by a court-martial; but the Minister of War, in defending him before the Reichstag, said very significantly that the Emperor had not confirmed the sentence; the whole tone of the War Minister's speech showing that the ethical standard of the ruling caste in Germany is still tainted with antiquated feudal traditions. A more serious scandal

Prince
Hohen-
lohe,
Chan-
cellor.

Election
of 1895.

German
Africa.

Offenses
of Lèse
Majesté.

North
Sea and
Baltic
Canal.

Sedan
Celebra-
tion.

Court
Scandals.

occurred later in the year, as a result of the trial of some journalists for an offense arising out of a false report of the Czar's speech at Breslau, which led to the most unexpected revelations, which at once caused the arrest of Herr von Tausch, the chief of the secret police and therefore a very powerful and important functionary. These revelations of personal and political intrigues in high places disturbed German society to its depths; but shortly before this occurrence an equally-profound sensation was produced by the publication of some most interesting and disturbing facts about the Triple Alliance, in the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, Prince Bismarck's newspaper organ. In this published statement about the Triple Alliance was the disclosure that the German government, after concluding that alliance, played a two-faced game by concluding a secret treaty of a defensive character with Russia, with a view to certain eventualities. This Machiavelian stroke was Prince Bismarck's work, and he cynically avowed it. His successor, Chancellor von Caprivi, had withdrawn from so compromising an agreement; and the announcement was mainly an effort to discredit Chancellor von Caprivi, as it was made by the *Hamburger Nachrichten* at a time when it appeared that Russia had finally deserted Germany for France, thus creating a profound sensation in Germany and still more so in Austria-Hungary. The German press also accused Great Britain of being responsible for the troublesome dock strike at Hamburg during the same year.

Increase
of the
German
Navy.

During the year 1897 the German imperial government directed its energies chiefly to the increase of its navy and the diffusion of German commerce with the aid of the German colonies and foreign stations, and great schemes for strengthening the German navy were before the Reichstag. In December, 1897, the Emperor William II. and his brother, Prince Henry, made speeches at Kiel which produced a great sensation throughout Europe. As a result of the acquittal of Herr von Tausch, Baron Marschall von Bieberstein, the very able German Minister of Foreign Affairs, was obliged to retire from office on account of being compromised in various scandals and was succeeded by Herr von Bülow, formerly German Minister at Rome. At the same time Dr. von Miquel became Vice President of the Prussian Ministry, his influence with the Emperor seemingly being as strong as ever.

Cabinet
Change.

German
Footing
in China
and Its
Result.

Late in 1897 Germany humbled the little West Indian Republic of Hayti, which was forced by the German navy to make amends for insults to German subjects. China was also humbled for injuries received by German subjects, and by her treaty with China on this occasion Germany obtained the cession of Kiao-chau, thus giving her a footing in China, as Kiao-chau was at once occupied by Germans. This was a signal for a scramble among the Great European Powers for



COUNT OTTO VON BISMARCK

slices of territory in China, Russia obtaining and fortifying Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, Great Britain receiving Wei-hai-wei and France getting a station in the South of China. There was already talk of the partition of China among the European Powers; but the result of the unprincipled proceedings of these Powers to advance their trade in the Orient aroused the latent patriotism of the Chinese, thus sowing the seeds of the great Boxer uprising in the summer of 1900, which the Great European Powers, along with Japan and the United States, were obliged to put down to save their missionaries and their diplomatic legations in the Chinese capital.

During the same year, 1898, in which Great Britain lost her most illustrious statesman of the last half of the nineteenth century—Mr. Gladstone, the “Grand Old Man”—Germany lost her greatest statesman of the century, the “Iron Chancellor,” the founder of the new German Empire, who had wielded the destinies of the Kingdom of Prussia for twenty-eight years and the destinies of the new German Empire, which he had founded, for its first nineteen years. He had brought about the unification of Germany and made the German Fatherland one great united nation, thus realizing the aspirations of the hitherto-divided and discordant German race by recovering the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark; by wresting the supremacy in Germany from the House of Hapsburg and transferring it to the House of Hohenzollern, and by recovering Alsace-Lorraine from France. His death occurred at Friedrichsruhe, July 30, 1898, and brought sorrow to every German heart.

**Bismarck's
Death.**

In 1898 Germany had slight controversies with Austria-Hungary and with Denmark as a result of the expulsion of Austro-Hungarian and Danish subjects from Prussia; and the Fatherland was also disturbed by a curious little quarrel known as the Lippe-Detmold incident, which at one time threatened to involve the Emperor with all the other German princes. The Emperor William II. supported one of the rival claimants to the regency of the little German principality of Lippe-Detmold; but the Court of Arbitration, under the presidency of the King of Saxony, sustained the other claimant. The result was much bad feeling at Berlin, annoying instructions to the commander of the imperial troops in Lippe-Detmold, formal complaint on the regent's part and an insulting telegram from the Emperor; whereupon the regent appealed to the princes of the German Empire; and the Emperor was obliged to recede from his position.

**Lippe-
Detmold
Incident.**

Near the end of November, 1898, the expulsion of Austro-Hungarian subjects from the Prussian kingdom assumed the phase of an international affair by the vigorous protest of Count Thun, the Austrian Prime Minister, who, in a speech in the Austrian Reichsrath,

**Slight
Quarrel
with
Austria-
Hungary.**

went so far as to warn the Prussian government that Austria might make reprisals if her subjects continued to be expelled from Prussia. For a short time there was some solicitude for the stability of the Triple Alliance, but that was established too firmly to be shaken by a frontier incident.

Tours of
Emperor
William
II.

During the fall of 1898 the Emperor William II. and his empress made a tour of the Near East, starting on October 11th for Venice, where he was received by King Humbert of Italy and his queen, and where the Emperor and his empress embarked on their magnificent yacht, the *Hohenzollern*, for Constantinople, where the Sultan of Turkey had made extraordinary preparations for the reception of his imperial guests. After a stay in the Turkish capital resembling a veritable Arabian Nights Entertainment, and at which there was considerable business discussion as to the development of Asia Minor by German capital, the Emperor of Germany and his consort left for Haifa and went up to Jerusalem, escorted by two thousand Turkish troops. The Roman Catholic world was astounded upon learning that the Sultan of Turkey had presented his imperial visitor with the piece of holy ground known as *La Dormition de la Vierge* (the place where the Virgin slept her last sleep, as Catholic tradition says she did not die) and that the Emperor had handed it over to his Roman Catholic subjects in Germany. A half-century before such a circumstance might have raised the Eastern Question to an acute form, but times had changed since then. The Emperor and Empress of Germany returned from their visit to Asiatic Turkey in the last week of November, just in time to see the settlement of the Austro-German controversy over the expulsion question and in time to note the introduction of a bill in the Reichstag for the addition of sixteen thousand men to the German army.

German
Anglo-
phobia.

The last few months of 1899 were signalized in Germany by a violent outburst of anti-British feeling on the part of the German press and people in consequence of their sympathy with the Boers of South Africa in their struggle with the British. This spirit of Ang'lophobia was not in the least affected by the visit of the German Emperor to his royal grandmother and uncle, Queen Victoria and the Prince of Wales, and the cordiality of his reception by the British public. The German newspaper attacks upon the British royal family were as offensive as the attacks of the French press. Nevertheless, the relations between the German and British governments were of the most friendly character, in spite of Count von Bülow's cool allusion to Great Britain in the Reichstag after his return from England, after his negotiation of the Samoan treaty with Great Britain and the United States late in November, which treaty divided the Samoan Islands between Germany

and the United States, Great Britain receiving the Tonga, or Friendly Islands from Germany upon retiring from Samoa.

Late in 1899 the German government concluded agreements with Cecil Rhodes with regard to a Trans-African telegraph and to railway development in South-west Africa. The Sultan of Turkey granted an important concession to the Deutsche Bank for the extension of the railways of Asia Minor to the Persian Gulf.

**Railway
Develop-
ment.**

The Emperor William II., desirous of making Germany a great commercial and colonial world power, had steadily insisted upon the necessity of increasing the German navy, and in urging the passage of his naval bills he skillfully made use of the detention of several German mail steamers at the Portuguese East African port of Lorenzo Marques by the British during their great war with the Boers in South Africa.

**The
German
Navy.**

Germany joined Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Japan and the United States in suppressing the great Boxer uprising in China in the summer of 1900, her Minister to the Celestial Empire, Baron von Ketteler, having been murdered by the Boxer mob in the streets of the Chinese capital; and Fie'd-Marshal Count von Waldersee, a German commander, was made commander-in-chief of the allied forces in China, but he did not arrive there until the allies had taken Pekin and relieved the besieged legations, thus practically suppressing the Boxer outbreak.

**German
Expedi-
tion in
China.**

In October, 1900, Prince Hohenlohe resigned the Chancellorship of Germany and was succeeded in that office by Count von Bülow. In 1901 Germany suffered severely from a financial crisis, and public feeling ran high on the tariff question, the agrarian interests being bitterly opposed to a protective tariff. The German press and people still indulged in their anti-British attitude in regard to the South African war; but the Emperor William II. refused to meet ex-President Krüger when he came to see His Majesty, and the German government maintained the strictest neutrality and declined to intervene in the interest of the Boers.

**Chan-
cellor von
Bülow.**

**Tariff
Question.**

**Con-
tinued
Anti-
British
Feeling.**

After a long illness, the Dowager Empress Victoria of Germany, widow of the late Frederick III., King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany; mother of William II., King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany; eldest child of the late Queen Victoria of Great Britain and Ireland, and therefore Princess Royal of Great Britain and Ireland and sister of Edward VII., King of Great Britain and Ireland, died at Friedrichshof, August 5, 1901, after a long illness from cancer, the same malady which had caused her husband's death thirteen years before. All her children, except Prince Henry, were at her bedside at the time. An Imperial Cabinet order issued on August 6th decreed six

**Death
of the
Dowager
Empress
Victoria.**

**Funeral
Obse-
quies.**

weeks of mourning, beginning with that day, and suspended all public amusements until after the funeral of the illustrious deceased. Messages of condolence were received from foreign governments. On August 8th the funeral services were held at Friedrichshof, the Emperor William II. being the chief mourner. The village of Kronberg, around the castle of Friedrichshof, was full of troops, and the police and military were restraining the crowds in the village. The church bells were tolling throughout the day on August 10th, when requiem service was performed in a Roman Catholic church. On August 13th the remains of the Dowager Empress were finally interred beside those of her husband, in the Friedenskirche mausoleum, near Potsdam.

**Ketteler's
Remains.**

While the remains of the Dowager-Empress Victoria were still unburied, the remains of Baron von Ketteler, the murdered German Minister to China, had just arrived in Germany and were honored with appropriate funeral obsequies. Field-Marshal Count von Waldersee, the German and allied commander-in-chief in China, arrived in Germany early in August, 1901, on his return from China, and was given enthusiastic popular ovations at Hamburg and Homburg.

**Prince
Henry's
Visit
to the
United
States.**

In the spring of 1902 the German Emperor's brother, Prince Henry, paid a short visit to the United States and was received very cordially by the American people. In return for this American courtesy, the Emperor presented the United States with a statue of his illustrious ancestor, Frederick the Great, the most celebrated of the Hohenzollerns. This statue was honored with a suitable place in the capital of the United States.

**Trouble
with
Vene-
zuela.**

At the close of 1902 Germany and Great Britain undertook to forcibly collect German and British claims against Venezuela and sent an ultimatum to Venezuela. As President Castro was very defiant and refused to give the required satisfaction to Germany and Great Britain, even going so far as to arrest the German and British consuls, German and British warships made a hostile demonstration, bombarding the ports of Venezuela and sinking a Venezuelan vessel. Through the friendly mediation of the United States, Germany and Great Britain agreed to settle their trouble with Venezuela by arbitration.

**Great
Socialist
Gains.**

The general elections in Germany in June, 1903, for members of the Reichstag resulted in an immense gain in the Socialist vote, which now numbered over three million, while over eighty Socialist members were elected to the Reichstag. The Socialists were now the largest of the various political parties of the German Empire.

**German
War in
South-
west
Africa.**

At the beginning of 1904 the German imperial government sent troops into her dominions in South-west Africa to quell disturbances of the Hottentots. The Germans had a severe struggle of several years with these African natives, and their troops suffered some severe defeats.

In the spring of 1905 the relations of Germany with France became strained concerning the situation in Morocco, where French influence was paramount in consequence of the recent Anglo-French agreement respecting Africa. Chancellor von Bülow's statement in the Reichstag showed that the crisis was acute; but France remained firm, being supported in her stand by Great Britain.

**Franco-German
Crisis.**

King Edward VII. visited the Kaiser at Berlin on August 15, 1906. In December the Kaiser dissolved the Reichstag for refusing to vote supplies for the war in Southwest Africa. On May, 14, 1907, the Reichstag passed a German-American commercial agreement. In November the Kaiser visited London as the guest of his uncle, King Edward. In March, 1908, the German government refused the proposal made by the Reichstag Appropriation Committee to use the War Fund of \$30,000,000 in gold, stored at Potsdam, to relieve the current needs of the Empire. In April, the armored cruiser *Blucher* was launched at Kiel.

SECTION XXI.—RUSSIA TO 1908.

In the meantime the Nihilists had been as active as ever throughout Russia, and conspiracies and assassinations were the order of the day. The constant arrests and transportations to Siberia did not tend in the least to deter the revolutionary elements in the Czar's dominions. Plot after plot against the Czar himself was discovered, and the autocrat was compelled to keep himself shut up in his palace as a virtual prisoner. The prisoners in Siberia had been subjected to the most outrageous cruelties, and numerous escapes and attempts to escape had been made. In December, 1889, there was a terrible slaughter of a number of prisoners who attempted to escape from their place of confinement. In March, 1890, the students in the Russian universities gave considerable annoyance to the authorities by their disturbances.

**Nihilist
Plots and
Siberian
Exiles.**

In the summer of 1890 the Jews in Russia, who had been subjected to the most cruel mob violence in 1882 and 1883, were again the victims of persecution, this time by the Russian government itself. Late in July, 1890, decrees were issued in Russia allowing the Jews to reside only in large towns and forbidding them to pursue certain occupations, depriving them of privileges of education and of entering the learned professions or becoming military engineers. All Jewish students were expelled from the higher institutions of learning, and all Jews were shut out from government offices. A million Jews lost their homes, and thousands migrated from Russia. The resolutions of a

**Persecu-
tion of
Jews in
Russia.**

mass meeting in London petitioning the Czar to relent in his treatment of his Hebrew subjects angered the Czar, who resented all foreign interference, even going so far as to return the petition of the London meeting without opening it. Early in January, 1891, Jews were forbidden to practice law in Russia. In April, 1891, the Jews were ordered to leave St. Petersburg and to reside in Eastern and Southern Russia. Late in November, 1892, the Jews of Moscow were ordered to convert their synagogue into a charitable institution or sell it, and an imperial ukase expelled all soldiers of the Jewish race from Moscow. The persecution of the unfortunate race continued without abatement.

**Russian
Famine
of 1891.**

In 1891 the failure of the wheat crop in Russia caused a horrible famine in that country, and thirty million people were suffering the pangs of hunger. Thousands of the peasants died daily from starvation, and the measures of the government were unable to afford the people relief. On August 11, 1891, an imperial ukase forbade the exportation of rye from Russia. Cargoes of wheat were sent from the United States to the famine-stricken land.

**The
Pamir
Question.**

During the summer of 1891 a Russian military expedition advanced as far in Central Asia as the Pamir tableland, but Russia's right to occupy this region was disputed by China and Great Britain, and it seemed likely that the latter two powers would combine against her. A second Russian military expedition was sent to the Pamir in the summer of 1892, and conflicts occurred between the Russians and the Afghans; but an amicable arrangement was finally made with China and Great Britain. In 1891 the Czarewitch was traveling in Eastern Asia, and while in Japan he was wounded by a policeman, May 11, 1891, but he soon recovered.

**Death of
Alex-
ander III.**

Russia experienced another change of Czars in the fall of 1894. Alexander III. became ill with influenza early in the year—an attack which aroused into activity an incurable disease, which finally ended his life at Livadia, in the Crimea, on November 1, 1894. He was buried at St. Petersburg amid protracted and imposing obsequies. His son and successor, NICHOLAS II., soon afterward married the Princess Alix of Hesse, the Prince and Princess of Wales being present at the wedding as well as at the funeral of the late Czar. The death of M. de Giers, the Russian Chancellor and Minister of Foreign Affairs, in January, 1895, was followed by the appointment of Prince Labanoff as his successor.

**Nicholas
II.**

**The New
Czar's
Visits.**

After his brilliant coronation at Moscow, May 26, 1896, the Czar Nicholas II. and his czarina made a tour of Europe, visiting the Emperors of Austria-Hungary and Germany respectively at Vienna and Berlin, the King of Denmark at Copenhagen, Queen Victoria and Lord Salisbury at Balmoral, in the Highlands of Scotland, and finally Presi-

dent Faure at Paris, where they were entertained with the most brilliant festivities, which were continued at the Palace of Versailles and which finally ended with a great military review at Chalons-sur-Marne, in which eighty thousand French troops participated.

The other important events of Russian history in 1896 were the death of the distinguished Russian Chancellor, Prince Labanoff, a statesman and diplomat of the first order, and the Russo-Chinese convention which provided for the building of a railway under Russia's direction through China's dependency of Manchuria, a result of the presence of the great Chinese statesman, Li Hung Chang, at the Czar's coronation while on his journey around the civilized world. In the meantime Russia's influence in Korea was growing.

In 1897 President Faure of France visited Russia and was heartily welcomed by the Russian people and handsomely entertained by the Czar at St. Petersburg. The Czar also received visits from the Emperor William II. of Germany and the Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary in 1897, the imperial visitors being brilliantly entertained during their stay in the Russian capital. Near the end of 1897 Russia acquired and fortified Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, in China, after Germany's acquisition of Kiao-chau.

While Russia was strengthening her influence in China in 1898 as a result of her military occupation of Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, the Czar Nicholas II. surprised the whole world by his proposal to the other Great Powers for a general disarmament in the interest of universal peace. This proposal was made on August 24, 1898, at the usual reception of the foreign diplomatic representatives at St. Petersburg, where Count Muravieff, the Russian Chancellor, unexpectedly handed to these diplomats a document, suggesting, in the Czar's name, some plan for a general disarmament. The result of the Czar's proposal was some weeks of diplomacy which led to negotiations for the assembling of a conference in which all the leading nations of the world were represented and which met at The Hague, in Holland in the summer and fall of 1899, and provided for the establishment of a great international arbitration tribunal for the peaceful settlement of controversies which might arise among nations. Though the Czar's intentions may have been good, The Hague Conference did not prevent the great British-Boer War, which broke out about the time when the conference was finishing its work, nor did it prevent the great war between the Czar's own empire and Japan more than five years later.

The chief events in Russia were the terrible famine in the southern Russian provinces and the beginning of the complete Russification of Finland by the inauguration of a series of proceedings on the part of the Czar's government which were in direct violation of the conditions

**Prince
Labanoff's
Death.**

**Russo-
Chinese
Conven-
tion.**

**The
Czar's
Guests.**

**The
Czar's
Disarma-
ment
Proposal.**

**The
Hague
Confer-
ence.**

**Russifi-
cation of
Finland.**

under which Finland was annexed to the Russian Empire by the Treaty of Frederiksham between Russia and Sweden in 1809, thus being a direct blow at the rights and liberties which the Finns had enjoyed under the Russian dominion for ninety years. Notwithstanding the promises of the Czar's government that the autonomy of Finland and the political privileges guaranteed to the Finns by their constitution, one encroachment after another has since been made upon their liberties and a centralizing policy has been adopted gradually whose purpose is apparently to incorporate Finland wholly in the Russian dominion in accordance with the policy of consolidation for the Russian Empire. All petitions and protests on the part of these peaceful and freedom-loving Finns were in vain, as the Russian government, in utter disregard of all solemn promises, snatched one right and privilege after another from the Finns, who could only petition and protest, being too weak to offer any forcible resistance to the arbitrary, tyrannical and centralizing schemes of the Russian autocrat and his corrupt bureaucracy. Deputations and monster petitions to the Czar and appeals for foreign sympathy showed the deep feeling of the Finns, thousands of whom left their native land and sought homes on foreign soil, many emigrating to the United States.

Russia's Part in Crushing the Chinese Boxers. The leading events in Russia in 1900 were the death of the Chancellor, Count Muravieff, on June 21st, and the appointment of Count Lamsdorff as his successor; the serious illness of the Czar at Livadia; the Russian invasion and occupation in Manchuria, and the participation of Russia with Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan and the United States in the suppression of the Boxer uprising in China and in the occupation of Peking and the relief of the beleaguered foreign embassies in the Chinese capital.

Russian Occupation of Manchuria. The conduct of Russia in seeking to annex Manchuria by right of conquest exasperated Japan, Great Britain and the United States. Japan and Great Britain seemed disposed to forcibly resist annexation and looked for the help of the United States, which did not want to become involved in a fight over the tangle. Russia, as she always does before annexing territory, denied any intention of annexing Manchuria; but she seized a railroad which had been built and controlled by British capital. The Anglo-Russian dispute over the Tien-tsin railway was soon compromised. The Russo-Japanese dispute over the Manchurian treaty between Russia and China was also soon settled, and China signed the treaty after Russia modified it.

Count Leo Tolstoi's Exile. In the spring of 1901 Count Leo Tolstoi, the famous Russian novelist, Socialist, noble, aristocrat, wealthy landowner, friend of humanity and foe of oppression, was excommunicated by the Procurator of the Holy Synod in St. Petersburg, after refusing to recant his so-

called heresies, and was afterward exiled from Russia by the Czar; the direct cause of his excommunication and exile being his story entitled: "Recruits for a Tyrant's Cause, or the Czar's School of Murder." The Russian government also ordered the American traveler and writer, George Kennan, to leave at once, as he was a dangerous man, as shown by his book on Siberia and her exiles.

During the spring of 1901 there were riots by students and workmen in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Odessa, Kharkoff and other large Russian cities; but many of the mobs were killed and wounded by Cossacks. There were plots to kill the Czar and his officials, and the Czar was shot at in his own palace. In many instances the soldiers mutined. In some cases when the officers ordered the troops to fire on the strikers the troops refused, and when the officers attempted to force them to do so the troops killed the officers. Prince Obelenski, Governor of Kharkoff, and Bessoniff, Chief of Police of the same place, were shot and wounded by a would-be-assassin.

**Out-
breaks in
Russian
Cities.**

The Russian government was still busily engaged in wiping out every trace of nationality in Finland; and, one by one, every vestige of Finnish nationality and liberty was taken away. The Finns were emigrating in large numbers to Canada and the United States, seventeen hundred and seventeen having bidden their native land a lasting farewell in the month of August, 1902. Still the Russian oppression of the Finns continued. The Finns were gradually being shorn of all their political rights and were being forced into the Russian army against their will by the cruel conscription laws. In addition to political oppression Finland was stricken by a horrible famine, and thousands upon thousands of Finns were emigrating to the Canadian Northwest. There is no more pathetic chapter in history of the cruel extinction of a nationality than this Russian absorption of Finland, whose people, too weak to resist, were obliged to witness their country's gradual extinction or emigrate to foreign lands.

**Finland's
Extinc-
tion.**

Early in the spring of 1902 there were dangerous students' riots in Moscow and St. Petersburg, which were suppressed with the most extreme difficulty by the police and Cossacks, and ninety-five of the Moscow rioters were exiled to Siberia and almost six hundred were imprisoned. In April, 1902, the Russian Minister of the Interior, M. Sepiaguine was shot and killed by an Anarchist. On March 22, 1903, the Czar Nicholas II. issued a decree providing for religious freedom throughout the Russian Empire and establishing local self-government to some extent.

**Students'
Riots.**

**Assassin-
ation.**

**Religious
Freedom.**

On April 18 and 19, 1903, there was a frightful massacre of Jews at Kischeneff in South-western Russia, the victims of the bloodthirsty mob numbering about two hundred killed and about four hundred in-

**Massacre
of Jews at
Kische-
neff.**

jured. Fully nine thousand Jewish families, comprising about twenty-five thousand people were reduced to the utmost destitution, being utterly without shelter or the means of subsistence. This terrible massacre produced horror and indignation throughout the civilized world, especially as it was said that the Russian authorities, particularly the Governor of Kischeneff, connived at the bloody tragedy.

Russia's
Stay in
Man-
churia.

Russia failed to evacuate Manchuria on October 8, 1903, as she had promised to do. She assigned "diplomatic" reasons for not fulfilling her agreement, and it was generally believed that she did not intend to give up her hold on that Chinese dependency. Japan protested very strongly against Russia's violation of her engagements.

Russo-
Japanese
War.

The long-continued troubles between Russia and Japan finally broke out into open war on February 8, 1904, when the Japanese Minister at St. Petersburg demanded his passports. Japan lost no time in beginning hostilities, as she immediately seized Masanpho, an important point on the south-eastern coast of Korea, as a base for military and naval operations. Both nations issued formal declarations of war on February 10th. On the very day that diplomatic relations were severed—February 8, 1904—the Japanese attacked the Russian fleet at Port Arthur and disabled the *Retvizan*, the *Pollada* and the *Czarewitch*. The next day the Japanese sank two Russian vessels at Chemulpo, Korea, the *Variag* and the *Koriets*. The war which now began was one of the greatest of modern times, and its land battles were among the greatest in the world's history. As we will give a detailed record of this war in the chapter on Japanese history, we will give merely an outline sketch in this connection.

Siege of
Port
Arthur.

Port Arthur was immediately besieged by the Japanese and frequently bombarded. On April 13, 1904, the Russian battleship *Petro-pavlosk* was destroyed by the explosion of a mine near Port Arthur, sinking with almost six hundred of her crew. In the same month the Japanese assumed the aggressive in Northern Korea, moving northward with little opposition. In May the Japanese army under General Kuroki crossed the Yalu river and drove the Russians toward Liaoyang. The second Japanese army under General Nogi invested Port Arthur. On May 12th the Russians blew up the docks and piers at Dalny.

Battles of
Vafan-
gow.

In June, 1904, the Japanese won two great battles; one between Vafangow, on the Liaotung peninsula, and Telissu, twenty-five miles farther north, beginning at Vafangow and ending at Telissu; and the other at Kin-chau, commanding one of the routes to Port Arthur. In July, 1904, the Japanese won battles at Vafangow, which commanded the northern entrance of the peninsula; at Fen-shui Pass, twenty-five miles from Hai-cheng, and one near Port Arthur.



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LAST RITES OF THE RUSSIAN CHURCH

The seizure and sinking of the British steamship *Knight Commander*, in the Pacific, east of Japan, by the Russian Vladivostok squadron, for a time threatened complications between the Russian and British governments. Another British vessel, the *Arabia*, was seized and taken to Vladivostok, but was released after the removal of the cargo, which was considered contraband of war. Russian war vessels in the Red Sea also held up British trading vessels, searching them for contraband of war.

Russian
Seizure of
British
Vessels.

The Japanese won the great battle of Liao-yang after some days' fighting in September, 1904, the Russian army under General Kuropatkin retreating toward Moukden, thirty miles north. This was one of the greatest battles of history, the Russian army numbering one hundred and sixty thousand men and the Japanese army two hundred and forty thousand men. In October the Russians advanced southward, but were defeated with the loss of twenty-five thousand men.

Battle of
Liao-
yang.

In September, 1904, the Russian Baltic fleet under the chief command of Admiral Rojestvensky sailed from Cronstadt for the Far East. In October this fleet fired into a British fishing fleet on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, thus causing serious complications between Russia and Great Britain, which were referred to an international commission for settlement.

Russian
Baltic
Fleet.

On November, 1904, the Japanese won another great victory after ten days' fighting on the Sahke river, near Moukden. On November 25th General Kuropatkin was made commander-in-chief of the Russian army in Manchuria. Alexineff was retained as Viceroy, but was immediately ordered to St. Petersburg. There was now a lull in the military operations in Manchuria.

Battle
on the
Sahke
River.

Kuropat-
kin and
Alexineff.

In the meantime the Japanese army under General Nogi had closely besieged and furiously bombarded Port Arthur, which was gallantly defended by its Russian garrison under General Stoessel. The Japanese captured two forts at Port Arthur on November 30th and another on December 1st. The Japanese bombarded the Russian warships at Port Arthur with great damage on December 6th. All the Russian war vessels in the Far East were reported destroyed, except the torpedo-boat destroyers and the *Sevastopol*. The Russian battleship *Pultowa* was sunk on December 7th. The Japanese were making steady progress in the reduction of Port Arthur. On December 15th the Japanese torpedo-boats made a desperate attack on the *Sevastopol*, wrecking the vessel. The Japanese captured another fort on December 19th. The Japanese captured the main fort of Erh-lung mountain with the loss of a thousand men on December 29th. On New Year's Day, 1905, the Japanese captured two forts on the Pan-lung mountain, which rendered the Port Arthur garrison helpless; and the next

Siege and
Fall of
Port
Arthur.

day—January 2, 1905—General Stoessel surrendered Port Arthur and its garrison to General Nogi, after one of the most memorable sieges on record, and military honors were granted to the captured Russians.

**Battle
on the
Hun
River.**

Late in January, 1905, military operations were resumed in Manchuria. On the 26th the Russians attacked the Japanese on the Hun river, and on the 27th General Kuropatkin reported the capture of two Japanese positions; but, after five days' fighting, the Russian operations against the Japanese on the Hun river resulted in failure, the Russians being repulsed with the loss of ten thousand men, January 30, 1905. On February 15th the Russians began an extensive cavalry movement against the Japanese on the Hun river.

**Battle of
Moukden.**

On February 26, 1905, the Japanese captured the city of Tsinkhetchen, and the next day the Japanese army crossed the Sha river. On March 2d General Kuroki closed in on General Kuropatkin's army at Moukden, and Kuropatkin retreated, fighting a rear-guard action. On March 5th Kuroki turned Kuropatkin's right flank and surrounded his army; and, after a week's fighting, Kuropatkin's army was forced to retreat with heavy loss, March 12, 1905. Kuropatkin was recalled, and General Linevitch was appointed his successor.

**Opera-
tions at
Moukden.**

On March 15th the Japanese army at Moukden moved to outflank the Russians, and Field-Marshal Oyama lost a thousand men in a frontal attack to test the Russian strength. On April 16th Field-Marshal Oyama moved against the Russians at Kiern, and advanced northward during the rest of the month. General Linevitch reported a determined but futile attack on Kai-yuan and Chang-to-Foo on April 26th. The Japanese were repulsed on May 12th.

**Rojest-
vsky's
Fleet
in the
East.**

In April, 1905, the Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rojestvensky had arrived in the China Sea and was found to be making use of the port of Kamranh Bay, in French Indo-China, which caused Japan to protest to France against such violation of neutrality. Rojestvensky's fleet thereupon sailed northward and was joined by the second Russian Baltic squadron. The combined Russian fleet then sailed north; and on May 27, 1905, this fleet was completely annihilated in the Straits of Korea by the Japanese fleet under Admiral Togo, who thus gained one of the most brilliant naval victories in the annals of war, sinking or capturing almost the entire Russian fleet. Admirals Rojestvensky and Nebogatoff were made prisoners, Rojestvensky being severely wounded, while Admiral Voelkersham was killed.

**Its
Annihila-
tion by
Togo's
Fleet.**

**Peace of
Ports-
mouth.**

The decisive defeats of the Russian army and navy all through the war caused the Russian government to consent to negotiations for peace; and through the mediation of President Roosevelt, after some diplomacy, both Russia and Japan appointed commissioners to nego-

tiate for peace. These commissioners met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in August, 1905, and concluded a treaty of peace.

In the meantime, while her disastrous war with Japan was in progress, Russia was in a revolutionary condition, her population being rebellious and her army mutinous. In November, 1903, there were disturbances in Russian Armenia, caused by a decree handing the Armenian Church over to the Russian government.

Russia's
Revolutionary
Condition.

The new Minister of the Interior was Prince Mirsky. After granting permission for the meeting of the Zemstvos representatives in St. Petersburg, the Russian government withdrew its permission at the last moment, near the end of November, 1904, to the great disappointment of the advocates of peaceful reform, they being allowed to meet in private, but not in public.

The
Zemstvos.

In December, 1904, there were revolutionary demonstrations at Moscow and in Poland, and the strike situation in St. Petersburg and in other large Russian cities became quite alarming about the middle of January, 1905.

Revolutionary
Spirit.

The St. Petersburg rising was the signal for outbreaks all over Russia; and all through the Czar's European dominions, from the Baltic to the Caucasus, there were popular risings and strikes for months and frequent collisions between the strikers or rioters and the military, in which many were killed and wounded, especially in such cities as Warsaw, Radom and Lodz, in Poland, and in Baku, on the shores of the Caspian Sea.

Continued
Turbulence.

On July 23, 1905, the Czar and Emperor William II. held a conference off Borgo, Finland. Many Jews were massacred in September at Kishineff. During the same month, the Czar proposed a second Peace Conference. On October 30, the Czar issued a manifesto assuring civil liberty, freedom of the press, extension of suffrage and consent of the Duma to the enforcement of the laws. On the same day Count Witte was appointed Russian Premier. He resigned on May 2, 1906.

Massacres
at
Kishineff.

Early in May, 1906, the Czar opened the first Russian Duma. He dissolved it on July 21. Five days later the members of the dissolved Duma issued a manifesto from Viborg, Finland. In July, many soldiers were shot down during military mutinies in Finland. In August a bomb exploded at Premier Stolypin's house. Fifty-four persons were killed and wounded. The next day a Russian girl at Peterhof assassinated General Min. Early in September a massacre of Jews occurred at Siedice, Poland.

Finnish
Dis-
turbances.

On January 9, 1907, General Pavlov, Military Procurator at St. Petersburg, was assassinated. On March 5 the Second Duma opened with many anti-government demonstrations by the people at the Russian capital. On December 10 the trial of General Stoessel began. Four days later a number of Social Democrats were severely punished as being responsible for the dissolution of the Second Duma.

Second
Duma
Dissolved.

In February, 1908, the trial of the Port Arthur officers ended. Nearly

General
Stoessel
Con-
demned.

all were punished. General Stoessel was condemned to death. Early in March, six Terrorists were hanged for conspiracy against the Grand Duke Nicholas and the Minister of Justice. On February 28, the Czar received 320 members of the Third Duma and urged the legislation suggested by the government for agrarian reforms. On March 17 the Czar confirmed the findings of the military court on Port Arthur officers and commuted General Stoessel's sentence to ten years' imprisonment. In April, Russia, Germany, Denmark and Sweden agreed to a convention maintaining the *status quo* of the Baltic. In May, Premier Stolypin urged legislation to secure the autonomy of Finland. On May 22, the president and seventeen members of the First Duma were thrown into prison at St. Petersburg. On July 11 the Third Duma adjourned.

SECTION XXII.—AUSTRIA-HUNGARY TO 1908.

Austria-
Hun-
gary's
New
Era.

From the time of her reorganization as a dual Empire under the able statesmanship of her illustrious Chancellor, the Saxon Baron von Beust, in 1867, Austria-Hungary, as we have observed, entered upon a new era of enlightened progress and reform, and her people have enjoyed liberal representative government with popular suffrage and local self-government, thus making that hitherto effete despotism a democratic monarchy, like Great Britain. Under Baron von Beust's successor, Count Andrassy, the distinguished Hungarian statesman, Austria-Hungary had another able Chancellor; and his enlightened administration of six years (1871-1877) was characterized by peaceful development of the dual Empire in every particular, the discordant elements composing the heterogeneous Empire being kept in check by her able Chancellor and her beloved and good Emperor. The year 1873 was signalized by an international exposition, or world's fair, at Vienna.

Baron
von
Beust and
Count
Andrassy.

Vienna
Exposi-
tion.

Count
Kalnoky.

The most noted of Count Andrassy's successors in the Chancellorship of the dual monarchy was Count Kalnoky, whose wise and able administration of imperial affairs was likewise prosperous and beneficent. M. Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, resigned March 7, 1890, and was succeeded by Count Julius Szapary.

Count
Taafe
and the
Czech
Agitation.

Count Taafe, the Austrian Prime Minister, resigned during 1893 because he could not immediately carry out certain remarkable proposals for the reform of the suffrage. In Bohemia the Young Czech party agitated for home rule, and riotous demonstrations occurred at Prague; but the authorities undertook to suppress the agitation with a strong hand, and the leaders of the agitation and the riotous students were arrested, tried and punished during the fall of 1893 and the ensuing winter. Riotous disturbances occurred at these trials, and on

several occasions the Court was abruptly broken up by the noisy demonstrations of the defendants and their sympathizers, but the authorities resorted to strong measures and put the Courts under military protection.

During 1894 Austria-Hungary was much troubled with religious questions. Pressure from high quarters finally induced the Hungarian House of Magnates to pass a Civil Marriage Bill similar to the laws of other countries of Continental Europe. The long wrangling of parties over this and kindred questions which agitated the Austro-Hungarian Empire finally led to another Ministerial crisis at the very close of 1894; whereupon Dr. Wekerle, the Liberal Austrian Prime Minister, was forced to resign. There were Anarchist outrages in Austria-Hungary, especially in Bohemia; and a number of Anarchists were brought to trial at Vienna, in February, 1894.

In 1895 there were several important political changes in Austria-Hungary, as a result of the antagonism between the Liberal and Clerical parties in the Empire, the intrigues of the Ultramontanes and the resistance of the moderate and national parties, which have had the support of the Emperor-King Francis Joseph himself. The tactless proceedings of Monseigneur Agliardi, the Papal Nuncio at Vienna, caused a breach between Baron Banffy, the Hungarian Prime Minister, and Count Kalnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, in May, 1895, which eventually led to the resignation of Count Kalnoky, who was succeeded by Count Goluchowski, a Pole. Prince Windischgratz, the Austrian Prime Minister, also resigned and was succeeded in office by Count Badeni, who undertook a strong program of large electoral reforms, the renewal of the compact with Hungary and resistance to papal aggression, which last feature was clearly exemplified in the Emperor-king's refusal to confirm the appointment of the resolute Anti-Semite and Clerical reactionary leader, Dr. Lueger, as Burgo-master of Vienna.

The only important event in the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary in 1896 was the celebration of the end of the first thousand years of Hungary's existence as a kingdom, this millennial anniversary being commemorated with great festivities at Buda-Pesth, the Hungarian capital.

The venerable Emperor-King Francis Joseph was greatly beloved by all the heterogeneous nationalities in his conglomerate Empire; but this did not prevent him from having a time of distraction in the year following Hungary's millennial celebration. The sudden growth of a mutually-hostile feeling among the many discordant nationalities of the ill-compacted Empire of the Hapsburgs in 1897 was truly alarming, the mutual ill-will culminating in unprecedented riotous scenes in

**Religious
Agitation
and
Cabinet
Crisis.**

**Minis-
terial
Changes
in
Austria-
Hungary
in 1895.**

**Hun-
gary's
Mil-
lennial
Celebra-
tion.**

**Austria-
Hun-
gary's
Distrac-
tion.**

the Austrian Reichsrath. The beneficent influence of the Emperor Francis Joseph had been able to keep these conglomerate nationalities fairly well together thus far; but, as a result of the agitation of the Clerical and Anti-Semitic parties, along with race animosity, the Reichsrath and the Empire almost passed beyond the good Emperor's control. On one occasion the Austrian Prime Minister, Count Badeni, fought a political duel. On another occasion the President of the Reichsrath was hooted down by the Opposition parties. On still another occasion the session of the Reichsrath broke up in a row and a scene of fisticuffs, the chamber being cleared by the police and the members being hustled off to the lockup. At one time the Opposition members broke up the session of the Reichsrath by noises of gongs and tin horns. Near the end of the year there were bloody riots at Prague. The reason of all this trouble was the expiration of the *Ausgleich*, or commercial agreement between Austria and Hungary. It soon developed into Jew hatred all over the Empire, which manifested itself on many occasions.

The distractions and dissensions in the Austro-Hungarian Empire continued throughout the year 1898 and menaced the discordant dual monarchy with civil war. The "nationalities question" continued prominent, and the race antipathy between Czech and German led to many deplorable scenes in the streets of Prague and in the chamber of the Reichsrath in Vienna. Hungary was also torn by violent political passions, uncontrolled by reason or common sense, the Hungarian Prime Minister feeling himself bound to fight a duel with every ill-mannered political opponent who called him ill names. Baron Gautsch resigned as Prime Minister of Austria in April, 1898, and was succeeded by Count Thun, whose most notable achievement was his anti-Prussian speech on the expulsion trouble with Germany to which we referred in the recent history of that Empire.

One terrible event during the year 1898 clouded the remaining years of the venerable Emperor Francis Joseph. This was the brutal assassination of his beloved empress, Elizabeth, who was stabbed to the heart by a sharpened file in the hands of an Italian Anarchist named Luccheni on the quay at Geneva, Switzerland, September 4, 1898. The assassin was captured, tried and sentenced to lifelong imprisonment. In consequence of this dastardly crime, the Italian government summoned a conference of representatives of the European nations to be held at Rome to adopt measures against the Anarchists and their clubs, which now constituted so grave a social peril. This horrible crime cast a blight on the Austro-Hungarian Emperor-king's jubilee celebration at Vienna, early in December, 1898, in commemoration of the end of the first fifty years of his reign.

Con-
tinued
Austro-
Hunga-
rian
Dissen-
sions.

Minis-
terial
Change.

Assassin-
ation of
Empress
Elizabeth
of
Austria-
Hungary.

Austria-Hungary continued to be agitated by race and party dissensions in 1899. Early in the year the Reichsrath was prorogued; and the *Ausgleich*, or financial compromise between Austria and Hungary, had to be renewed by imperial and royal prerogative. In September there was a Cabinet crisis, when Count Thun resigned and was succeeded as Prime Minister of Austria by Count Manfred Clary, Governor of Styria, at the head of a new Cabinet. The new Ministry was factiously opposed in the Reichsrath, and before the end of the year it had to resign and make way for another Ministry under Dr. von Wittek.

Ausgleich and Ministerial Changes in Austria-Hungary.

The dissensions in Austria-Hungary continued unabated during the year 1900, so that the Emperor Francis Joseph found himself under the necessity of threatening an arbitrary alteration of the whole Parliamentary system of his bad'y-connected Empire, whose stability was threatened still further by a disarrangement of the established order of succession in consequence of the morganatic marriage of the Archduke Ferdinand, the Crown Prince of Austria-Hungary, with the Countess Chotek. The discordant Empire of the Hapsburgs has since continued to be torn by race animosities, and its internal troubles have become chronic.

Austro-Hungarian Crown Prince's Morganatic Marriage.

In the spring of 1902 there was a repetition of violent scenes in the Austrian Reichsrath, where the Czech and German members created such violent and disorderly scenes in their criminations and recriminations against each other that the presiding officer repeatedly had to adjourn the chamber, the Czech members even going so far as to beat gongs and blow tin horns to drown the voices of the speakers among their opponents on the German side of the chamber.

Violent Scenes in the Austrian Reichsrath.

The Emperor Francis Joseph celebrated his seventy-second birthday on August 18, 1902, festivities being held everywhere throughout the dual Empire of Austria-Hungary on that day, and the two hundred persons imprisoned for *lese majestie* being pardoned and liberated. On this occasion the Austro-Hungarian people testified their loyalty and affection toward their beloved Emperor.

Festivities in Austria-Hungary.

On December 13, 1904, a violent scene occurred in the Hungarian Diet, when the Opposition members of the Chamber of Deputies drove out the guards, wrecked the chamber and piled all the furniture in the middle of the room.

Scene in the Hungarian Diet.

The Hungarian Diet was dissolved on January 3, 1905, as a result of the long struggle over the irreconcilable tendencies in the Emperor-King Francis Joseph's policy as represented by Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, on the one hand, and the policy of the Hungarian Nationalists, under the leadership of Francis Kossuth, son of the great Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian patriot of 1848-49, on the other hand.

Austro-Hungarian Crisis.

Francis Kossuth declared that for thirty-seven years Hungary has struggled to annul those arrangements which have bound her to Austria, to Austria's advantage and Hungary's disadvantage; the *Ausgleich*, or commercial treaties, always favoring Austria's industrial interests and injuring those of Hungary. Without dissolving the ties which have united Austria and Hungary in a dual monarchy, the Hungarians have sought measures giving a larger degree of independence to their country and conserving their local interests. Of course, the inevitable result was to come in conflict with the imperial ideas of what is essential to effective national unity. Prime Minister Tisza's confessed unconstitutional action in stationing a guard about the chamber, which he justified on account of the obstructive tactics of the Opposition, caused the previous violent outbreaks in the Diet, the Opposition resenting such unconstitutional procedure on the Prime Minister's part. The dissolution of the Diet forced an appeal to the Hungarian people, and the political campaign was a very exciting one. Prime Minister Tisza said that the great question to be decided by the voters of Hungary is whether a majority should rule and whether there should be an end to obstructive tactics. The real issue, however, is whether Austria and Hungary can exist together in peace as a dual monarchy.

Hungarian
Cabinet
Crisis.

In the spring of 1905 there was a long-continued Ministerial crisis in Hungary, and the Emperor Francis Joseph was in Buda-Pesth for more than two weeks for the purpose of adjusting the trouble, March 19th to April 5th. He was obliged to return to Vienna without being able to reconcile conflicting views, thus leaving the situation unchanged. He refused to comply with the Hungarian demand for the use of the Magyar language in the Hungarian regiments, and the Hungarian Independents persisted in pressing their demands for that and other reforms. The Hungarians did not desire secession from the dual Empire, but only full autonomy and a recognition of all the claims of Hungarian nationality. The Hungarians finally relinquished their demands in this particular. On August 15, 1907, Emperor Francis Joseph and King Edward VII. met at Ischl.

SECTION XXIII.—ITALY TO 1908.

In the meantime Italy had been prospering during the reign of King Humbert under some very able statesmen as Prime Ministers, the most noted being Signor Crispi. Italy built up a powerful navy and became an ally of Great Britain, but her people were oppressed with heavy taxation and were suffering the most extreme wretchedness and poverty.

Italy
under
King
Humbert
and
Signor
Crispi.

Italy, like Germany and Belgium, entered upon a career of colonial expansion in Africa, occupying part of the Red Sea coast, as an ally of Great Britain. The British and Egyptians were still fighting the followers of the dead El Mahdi on the Upper Nile, who were led by a new Mahdi. Osman Digma was defeated by the Abyssinians in 1887. In the meantime Italy, Great Britain's ally, had taken part in the war against the Mahdi's followers and had landed troops at Massowah, on the Red Sea. The Italians were defeated by the Abyssinians, who then besieged Massowah, February, 1887. The Italians blockaded the coast of Abyssinia, and the Italian government sent an expedition to relieve the garrison of Massowah. Italy in the meantime had annexed Massowah, with the approval of Great Britain. In the meantime Emin Bey, the governor of Egypt's equatorial province, was in a perilous position in the midst of hostile natives. With the approval of the British government, Mr. Stanley led an expedition for the relief of Emin Bey; and the Egyptian government aided this expedition. The Egyptian forces defeated the Mahdists at Suakim, December 20, 1888, driving them from their intrenchments. Emin Bey defeated six thousand Mahdists in 1889. King John of Abyssinia was killed in battle with the Mahdists at Metemneh, March 10, 1889; whereupon Italy took Abyssinia under her protection in the fall of 1889. The Italian East Africa Company undertook the development of the new Italian acquisitions. After months of negotiation Italy and Great Britain came to an agreement respecting North-eastern Africa, March 24, 1891.

While the Italians were fighting the Mahdists and the Abyssinians on the Red Sea coast, their allies, the Egyptians, were still struggling with the Dervishes, the dead Mahdi's fanatical followers, in Nubia; and the Dervishes were defeated at Suakim, January 27, 1891, and Handoub was captured by the Egyptians the next day. Egyptian troops under the British Colonel Hotted Smith captured Tokar and defeated the Dervishes, more than seven hundred of whom were killed, February 19, 1891. Osman Digma fled to Kassala. The Khedive of Egypt, Tewfik Pasha, died January 7, 1892, and was succeeded by his eldest son, ABBAS PASHA.

Finally, Signor Crispi's Ministry resigned in consequence of the defeat of his party in the elections, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under the Marquis di Rudini, February, 1891. It was under the new Ministry that Italy became involved in a diplomatic rupture with the United States in consequence of the lynching (March 14, 1891), by a mob in New Orleans, of eleven Italians who had been acquitted by a jury of the murder of Chief of Police David C. Hennessy, on October 13, 1890. The affair was finally settled by the United States making reparation and paying an indemnity. In 1892 the Ministry of the

Italy's
Colony in
Africa.

Her
Wars
with the
Mahdists
and Ab-
yssinia.

Her
Egyptian
Allies.

Victories
of Italy's
Egyptian
Allies
over the
Mahdists.

Rudini
and
Giollitti
Minis-
tries.

Italian-
American
Quarrel.

Marquis di Rudini was succeeded by a new Ministry under Signor Giolitti.

**Visit
of the
German
Emperor
and the
British
Fleet.**

The year 1893 was a year of festivities in Italy. King Humbert and his queen celebrated their silver wedding amid the rejoicings of the people of Rome, and the occasion derived additional splendor from the visit of the Emperor William II. of Germany and his empress. Later in 1893 the British Mediterranean squadron visited Taranto and Spezzia and was received with great cordiality; but the death of Lord Vivian at the same time threw a gloom over the festivities, but it also tended to increase the friendly demonstrations of the Italian court, navy and people toward Great Britain.

**Crispi's
New
Ministry.**

Bank scandals, financial difficulties and the deplorable condition of Sicily hung like a dark cloud over Italy in 1893. Late in the year the Giolitti Ministry resigned, after holding office for a year, whereupon Signor Crispi formed a new Ministry and again undertook the direction of public affairs.

**Sicily's
Outbreak.**

The year 1894 opened with a violent outbreak in the island of Sicily, in consequence of the extreme poverty of the people, who were instigated to rebellion by Socialist agitators; but the insurrection was finally crushed by Italian troops, and a Sicilian member of the Italian Chamber of Deputies was tried, convicted and sent to prison for a term of years as the responsible author of the outbreak. Extreme poverty and heavy taxation produced popular unrest throughout Italy in 1894, which was heightened by the Banca Romana scandal, the defendants in which were acquitted after an exciting trial, during which Signor Giolitti endeavored to connect Premier Crispi with the scandal. In June, 1894, an attempt was made to assassinate Premier Crispi in Rome, but the Prime Minister himself caught the assassin, who was sent to prison for twenty years.

**Italian
Victory
over
Abyssin-
ians.**

In Italian Africa seven thousand Italian troops under General Baratieri defeated ten thousand Abyssinians with the loss of over two hundred killed and wounded, near Antola, January 13 and 14, 1895. The Abyssinians were afterward dispersed at Senafa, and General Baratieri entered Adigrat, March 25, 1895.

**Election
of 1895.**

Italy had a general election in 1895, which sustained Signor Crispi's Ministry by returning a majority of more than two to one in his favor; but the quarrels between the Prime Minister and his opponents continued. The twenty-fifth anniversary of the Italian annexation of Rome in 1870 was celebrated by magnificent fêtes in the Italian capital on September 20, 1895.

**Anni-
versary.**

**Italian
Defeats
by
Abyssin-
ians.**

The year 1895 closed with a great Italian military disaster in Italian Africa. General Baratieri's great victory was followed by a serious reverse at the hands of the Abyssinians under the leadership of Ras

Mangascia, one of King Menelek's best commanders, in December, 1895; the Italians losing several officers and almost a thousand native troops. This reverse seriously endangered the Italian position at Kassala. But General Baratieri met with a still more disastrous defeat at the hands of the Abyssinians on March 1, 1896, when, at the head of twenty thousand Italian troops, he attacked eighty thousand well-armed Abyssinians who then occupied the hills in front of his position near Adown, and suffered a crushing defeat; his army being almost surrounded, General Albertone's column being driven back, General Dabormida being killed, the Italian main army being driven from its positions, fifty Italian cannon being captured and seven thousand Italian troops being killed and wounded; but the victorious Abyssinians did not follow up their victory, and the Italians held on to Massowah and its vicinity.

General Baratieri's great disasters created consternation at Rome and throughout Italy, and Signor Crispi's Ministry resigned at once and was succeeded by a new Ministry under the Marquis di Rudini, whose Minister of Foreign Affairs for a short time was the Duke of Sermontea. General Baratieri was superseded in his command by General Baldissera, who found a crippled and demoralized army awaiting his command upon his arrival in Italian Africa. General Baratieri was court-martialed, but was acquitted of all but a grave error of judgment.

Italy found great difficulty arranging a peace with King Menelek of Abyssinia; but, after Pope Leo XIII. had secured the release of the Italian prisoners, Major Nerazzani succeeded in negotiating a treaty of peace with the Abyssinian king on October 26, 1896, by which Italy recognized the independence of Abyssinia; agreed not to increase her African territory nor to cede any of her territory to a third power until a commission had settled the future frontiers, and promised a small money payment to King Menelek for feeding the Italian prisoners. King Menelek himself telegraphed the news of the treaty to King Humbert, to the Czar Nicholas II. and to President Faure of France.

On October 24, 1896, King Humbert's son, the Prince of Naples and heir-apparent to the Italian throne, was married at Rome to the Princess Helena of Montenegro—a royal marriage which was very popular throughout Italy. In 1897 the Italian royal family gained in prestige by a duel which the Count of Turin fought with Prince Henry of Orleans to vindicate the honor of the Italian army. There were several Cabinet crises in Italy in 1897, but the Marquis di Rudini remained in office as Prime Minister.

In 1898 an important industrial exposition was held at Turin to commemorate the jubilee, or fiftieth anniversary of the constitution of

**The
Marquis
of
Rudini's
New
Ministry.**

**General
Baratieri
Disgraced.**

**Peace
between
Italy and
Abyssinia.**

**Italian
Crown
Prince's
Marriage.**

**Princely
Duel.**

**Cabinet
Crises.**

Industrial Exposition at Turin. Piedmont, on which the present Italian constitution is modeled. The rise in the price of bread caused certain Socialist and Clerical agitators to foment disturbances in various Italian cities; and these outbreaks culminated in a terrible riot in Milan, May 7, 1898. The Italian government seized the telegraph wires and sought to prevent the publication of full accounts of the occurrence; but barricades were erected in the city, and in the street-fights which followed hundreds were killed and wounded. Courts-martial were set to work, and the leaders of the outbreak were punished very severely, some of them being sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment.

Riot in Milan.

Ministry of General Pelloux in Italy. The disturbances just related led to the fall of the Ministry of the Marquis di Rudini and the organization of a new Ministry under General Pelloux composed of Liberals and Radicals, or members of the Left and Left Center in the Italian Parliament. This Liberal Ministry concluded a new commercial treaty with France. During the year Signor Cavallotti, the Radical leader, was killed in a duel; and Signor Crispi was censured by a commission of the Italian Chamber of Deputies to investigate that statesman's relations with the Bank of Naples.

Cabinet Reorganized. The liberation of a large number of political prisoners at the beginning of 1899 did not conciliate the extreme Radical party of Italy, whose violence thus far strengthened the Conservative party. In May, 1899, General Pelloux's Ministry was reorganized, himself remaining as Prime Minister and taking the Marquis Visconti Venosta and other Conservatives into his Cabinet.

Assassination of King Humbert. The whole civilized world was startled by the assassination of King Humbert, one of the best and most devoted of the European monarchs, who was shot at Monza, near Milan, on Sunday evening, July 29, 1900, by an Anarchist named Angelo Bresci, who was arrested for his crime and was afterward tried, convicted and imprisoned for life. He is said to have afterwards become insane in prison and to have committed suicide. The murdered king was succeeded on the Italian throne by his son, the Prince of Naples, who thus became King VICTOR EMMANUEL II. A few days afterward the new king electrified the Italian Senate and nation by his speech on the Senate floor.

King Victor Emmanuel II.

Peasant Revolt in Sicily. In the spring of 1902 there was a serious peasant revolt in Sicily, the disturbances being especially alarming at Catania, Syracuse, Palermo and other large towns. In December, 1902, Italy united with Germany and Great Britain in demands upon Venezuela for payment of claims.

On July 14, 1902, the famous campanile, or detached bell tower, of St. Mark's, at Venice, which had stood for more than a thousand years, collapsed and fell to the ground. This was the most famous landmark of Venice and was three hundred and twenty-five feet high and forty-two feet square.



GIUSEPPE SARTO—POPE PIUS X.

Pope Leo XIII. died at Rome, July 20, 1903, at the age of ninety-three years, and after a pontificate of twenty-five years, after an illness of some weeks. On August 4, 1903, the conclave of cardinals of the Roman Catholic world elected Cardinal Joseph Sarto, Patriarch of Venice, as the new Pope with the title of Pius X.

**Pope
Pius X
Elected.**

On January 25, 1906, the Simplon Tunnel, connecting Italy with Switzerland, was opened. In April, Mount Vesuvius was in violent eruption and great loss of life and property ensued. On April 29 an International Exhibition was opened at Milan. The Vatican, in September, issued an encyclical concerning the law in France separating Church and State.

**Simplon
Tunnel
Opened.**

On February 15, 1907, occurred the death of Giosue Carducci, the poet; on March 11, 1908, Edwondo de Amicis, the novelist, died; on August 7, Antonio Starrabbo, a former premier, and on August 17, Antonio Barrili, the novelist.

**Noted
Deaths.**

SECTION XXIV.—SPAIN TO 1908.

SPAIN has been unusually quiet since the overthrow of the Spanish Republic and the accession of King Alfonso XII. at the beginning of 1875. In 1877 Alfonso married Mercedes, a daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier, thus fulfilling a part of the scheme of Louis Philippe of France. But Mercedes died in the summer of 1878; and the following year Alfonso married Maria Christina, the daughter of the Austrian Archduke Ferdinand. Several attempts upon the life of Alfonso were made by Socialists during the years 1878 and 1879; and in August, 1883, there was a military uprising in favor of a republic in Spain, but it was easily suppressed. Alfonso XII. died on November 25, 1885, and the next day Marshal Serrano also died. Alfonso's widow, Maria Christina, became regent for their little son, who succeeded his father on the Spanish throne as ALFONSO XIII.

**King
Alfonso
XII. of
Spain
and His
Wives.**

**King
Alfonso
XIII.**

The first elections based on universal suffrage in Spain, on Sunday, February 1, 1891, resulted in large gains for the Conservative Ministry. During the first few months of 1892 Spain was disturbed by Anarchist outrages similar to those of France at the same time. Troops were sent to suppress the Anarchist movement in the province of Malaga. An Anarchist outbreak occurred at Xeres de la Frontera, January 9, 1892; and the Anarchist movement extended to San Fernando, causing intense alarm. The four Anarchist leaders in the rising at Xeres de la Frontera were executed February 10, 1892. The Anarchists throughout Spain circulated placards threatening vengeance for the execution of their brethren at Xeres de la Frontera; and the police made many arrests at Barcelona, Cadiz and other places.

**Anarchist
Outrages
in Spain.**

**Anarchist
Outbreak
at Xeres
de la
Frontera**

The police at Xeres de la Frontera put the Anarchists to flight. An Anarchist plot to blow up the Chamber of Deputies at Madrid caused intense alarm. There was a great demonstration at Madrid in honor of Columbus, November 13, 1892.

**World's
Fair at
Madrid.**

An international industrial exposition, or world's fair, was held at Madrid in 1892, in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America under the patronage and auspices of Ferdinand and Isabella, Spain's famous sovereigns four centuries ago.

**Anarchist
Outrages
in Spain.**

In the fall of 1893 the Anarchists were active in Spain. Pallas threw a bomb on the parade ground at Barcelona, seriously wounding Marshal Martinez Campos; and soon afterward another Anarchist exploded a bomb in a theater in the same city, killing and wounding many men and women of the upper classes; but these assassins were tried, convicted and garroted. A number of Anarchist outrages also occurred in Madrid in 1893.

**Spain's
Dispute
with
Morocco.**

In the fall of 1893 the wild Moorish tribes near the Spanish fort of Melilla, in Morocco, attacked the Spanish garrison; and the affair threatened a rupture between Spain and Morocco, as the Sultan of Morocco was slow to render satisfaction because the tribes guilty of the aggression were rebels against his authority; but after several months of negotiation the affair was adjusted, the Moorish Sultan agreeing to give satisfaction to Spain for the aggressive conduct of the rebellious tribes.

**Philippine
Dispute
and
Cuban
Rebellions**

Early in 1895 a formidable rebellion against Spanish authority broke out in the Philippine Islands, which lasted several years. The Spaniards under General Parrado defeated the Malay Moslems in Mindanao, one of the Philippine Islands, March 10, 1895. Early in 1895 there was another rebellion against Spanish authority in the island of Cuba, and troops were sent from Spain to crush the revolt. The revolted Cubans had agents in the United States who were doing all in their power to further the Cuban cause, but the United States authorities took care to prevent a violation of neutrality laws.

**Disturbances
in Madrid.**

Several newspapers in Madrid charged the military officers in that city with cowardice, because they did not go to fight the Cuban rebels. The accused officers resented the charges of the newspapers by raiding and wrecking the offices of the offensive journals. Marshal Martinez Campos, Governor-General of Madrid, restored order in the capital; but General Lopez Dominguez, Minister of War, defended the lawless conduct of the army officers, in the Chamber of Deputies, and demanded that journalists who insulted the army be tried by court-martial for libel. This demand caused the resignation of Señor Sagasta's Ministry and the formation of a Conservative Ministry under Señor Canovas del Castillo, March, 1895.

**Ministry
of
Canovas
del
Castillo
in Spain.**

In the meantime the rebellion in Cuba had made great progress, and Spain sent two hundred thousand troops to that island to restore her authority, while Marshal Martinez Campos was sent to the revolted island as Captain-General. After his failure to pacify the island General Valeriano Weyler, a man noted for his sternness and resolution, was sent to Cuba as Captain-General. Late in 1896 the Cuban rebel chief Maceo was killed in a skirmish; but even that great blow to the Cuban cause did not tend to restore Spain's authority, while Captain-General Weyler's harsh measures were strengthening the sympathy of the people or the United States with the Cuban revolutionists. Even the vigilant care of the United States government did not prevent American filibustering expeditions being fitted out to aid the revolted Cubans. Finally, Captain-General Weyler's reconcentrado policy, which caused general distress and starvation among the Cubans, still further aroused American sympathy for struggling Cuba.

On August 8, 1897, the Spanish Prime Minister, Canovas del Castillo, was assassinated by an Italian Anarchist; and his Conservative Cabinet was succeeded by a Liberal Ministry under the great statesman and leader of the Spanish Liberal party, Señor Sagasta. The new Ministry inaugurated a policy of conciliation for Cuba, with the view of pacifying the island; and, to carry out this new conciliatory policy, Captain-General Weyler was recalled; and his successor, Captain-General Blanco, at once entered upon his duties in Cuba's capital.

Captain-General Blanco failed in his effort to conciliate the Cuban rebels, and thousands of Cubans were still starving as a result of Weyler's reconcentrado policy; while American sympathy for the revolted islanders grew stronger daily. Finally the United States battleship *Maine* was blown up in Havana harbor, February 15, 1898; and this outrage, along with the cruel distress among the Cubans in consequence of Weyler's reconcentrado policy, caused the United States Congress to demand Spain's withdrawal from Cuba—a demand which Spain refused to comply with, thus bringing on war between Spain and the United States.

As the account of this war will be detailed in the chapter on the United States, we will give a mere outline of its chief events in this connection. The war began April 22, 1898, and its first great event was the destruction of the Spanish fleet under Admiral Montojo by the American squadron under Commodore George Dewey, in Manila Bay, in the Philippine Islands, Sunday, May 1, 1898. The Philippine insurgents under Aguinaldo renewed their rebellion; and a United States army under General Wesley Merritt invaded and conquered the Philippines by the capture of Manila after a spirited engagement, August 13, 1898. In the meantime a United States army under General

**The
Cuban
Rebellion.**

**Captain-General
Weyler.**

**Assassination of
Canovas del
Castillo.**

**Señor
Sagasta's
Liberal
Ministry
in Spain.**

**Captain-General
Blanco's
Failure
in Cuba.**

**Spain's
War
with the
United
States.**

**Battles
of Manila
and
Santiago.**

William R. Shafter invaded Cuba and defeated the Spanish army under General Linares at Santiago de Cuba, on Sunday, July 3, 1898, after a battle of three days; while on the same day the American squadron under Commodore Winfield Scott Schley destroyed the Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera at Santiago harbor. Porto Rico was invaded and conquered by United States troops under General Nelson A. Miles. A peace protocol was signed at Washington, August 12, 1898, by which Spain acknowledged the independence of Cuba and ceded Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands to the United States; and a definitive treaty of peace was signed by Spanish and American commissioners at Paris, December 10, 1898, by which Spain received twenty million dollars for the Philippines.

**Spain's
Colonies
Lost.**

**Peace of
Paris.**

**Labor
Troubles
in Spain.**

Having lost her most valuable remaining colonies by her reverses in her war with the United States, Spain sold the Caroline Islands to Germany and sought to recuperate from the effects of her disastrous war. For several years Spain was menaced with internal troubles caused by political and labor disturbances in Madrid, Barcelona and other cities.

**Dynastic
Marriage
and Its
Menace.**

Spain seemed to be on the verge of civil war early in 1901 in consequence of the marriage of the young king's sister, Mercedes de Bourbon, Princess of Asturias, to Prince Carlos de Bourbon, of the Carlist branch of the Bourbon dynasty; this marriage being very distasteful to the nation because of the reactionary tendencies of the Carlist branch of the dynasty; but the queen-regent had arranged it in order to unite the rival interests and claims of the two branches of this dynasty and rid the kingdom of the constant menaces and periodical outbreaks of civil war which the rival pretensions of the two branches of the dynasty had caused for two-thirds of a century. The marriage produced riots in Barcelona and other large cities in Spain; but order was preserved in the capital by General Valeriano Weyler, late Captain-General of Cuba, who had just been appointed Captain-General of Madrid. The elections in Spain, in May, 1901, resulted in favor of the Ministry of Señor Sagasta, which therefore remained in power. There were disturbances in many places.

**General
Weyler's
Cruel
Methods.**

In the spring of 1902 General Weyler quelled the labor troubles in Barcelona by shooting the labor leaders and by executing the others by the garrote. There were no public trials. Persons known to be inciting disorder were arrested and executed. Sometimes the arrests were made quietly when the victims were at home; at other times when they were in the streets or factories. In this way the leaders of the labor agitation were annihilated and the agitation was suppressed for a time at least. Weyler's sanguinary methods excited unfavorable comment in parts of Spain where the press and people were free to speak

their minds, and the revolutionary movement was spreading under the surface. The wretched condition of the toilers, both in town and field, and disgust with the reigning Bourbon dynasty, which had witnessed Spain's defeat in war, were mainly at the bottom of the existing disorder; and that was the reason why the Carlists and the Socialists were found contending together against the government. Weyler's severities were no more effective at home than they had been in Cuba while he was Captain-General of that island.

On May 17, 1902, young Alfonso XIII., having attained his legal royal majority, was crowned King of Spain, taking the oath as sovereign in the Chamber of Deputies at Madrid under circumstances of mediæval magnificence. He was king from his birth, having been born after his father's death; but his mother had ruled in his name as regent from his birth. He did not assume his royal functions under the most promising conditions, as revolutionary disturbances and labor troubles continued to keep the public mind in a state of ferment and apprehension.

**Corona-
tion of
King
Alfonso
XIII in
Spain.**

On December 3, 1902, Señor Sagasta presented his resignation as Prime Minister to King Alfonso XIII. The Spanish Liberals and Republicans opposed the new Concordat between Spain and the Pope, and even the Conservative Ministerial party were not solidly in its favor. There was a sentiment growing in Spain against the teaching by Roman Catholic orders and in favor of public school instruction. On July 19, 1903, there was a change of Ministry in Spain; and on December 3, 1903, there was another change of Cabinets. On December 14, 1904, the entire Ministry resigned because of disagreement over the proposed military reforms and the king's refusal to confirm certain nominations of the War Minister, General Linares, who had commanded in Cuba during the war with the United States.

**Cabinet
Changes
and
Clerical-
ism.**

In December, 1903, King Alfonso XIII. visited Portugal and was cheered by crowds. In June, 1905, he visited France and England; and while in Paris, on June 1st, an attempt was made to assassinate him and President Loubet by throwing a bomb into their carriage. In England the young Spanish king received a royal welcome from King Edward VII.

**King
Alfonso's
Visits.**

King Alfonso XIII. is so ardent in his Roman Catholic faith that he wrote a letter to the Bishop of Barcelona promising to aid him in preventing the erection of two Protestant churches in that city. His stand in this particular was opposed violently by the Spanish Liberals and Republicans, who were in favor of religious liberty and opposed to interference from clericalism with such liberty. On May 31, 1906, King Alfonso and Princess Victoria of England were married at Madrid. On October 20, anti-clerical riots occurred at Valencia.

**His
Strong
Catholic
Faith.**

SECTION XXV.—MINOR NATIONS OF NORTHERN AND WESTERN EUROPE (A. D. 1873–1908).

Dutch-Acheenese War.

IN the spring of 1873 Holland became involved in a war with the Acheenese, a powerful native race of the island of Sumatra, with whom the Dutch had been at war frequently. This war lasted more than thirty years without intermission, being conducted with shocking cruelty on both sides, massacres and reprisals being frequent, while the Acheenese were making the most stubborn resistance.

Holland's Little Queen Wilhelmina.

On October 29, 1890, the States-General of Holland declared King William III. incapable of governing on account of insanity and created his wife, Queen Emma, regent. On the death of King William III., November 23, 1890, his little nine-year-old daughter, **WILHELMINA**, became Queen of Holland, under her mother's regency; but as females are excluded from the sovereignty of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, the Duke of Nassau became Grand Duke of Luxemburg. As the republicans were active throughout Holland after the king's death, the police seized a large number of republican placards, and measures were taken to prevent any dissemination of republican ideas.

Her Assumption of Government and Marriage.

In 1898 the young Queen Wilhelmina became of age, and in September of that year she assumed the government of her kingdom amid the rejoicings of her subjects, who were aroused to a passionate loyalty by her grace, dignity and self-possession. On February 7, 1901, she married Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; so that, while the British people were mourning the recent death of their illustrious queen, the Dutch people were rejoicing in the marriage of their young queen. The elections in Holland in June, 1901, gave the Roman Catholics a majority in the lower chamber of the States-General. In July, 1901, there was a Cabinet crisis in Holland; and Dr. Kuyper, a moderate Protectionist, formed a new Ministry.

Belgium and the Kongo Free State.

Late in 1884—when Germany first entered upon her colonial career in East and South-west Africa—the Kongo Free State was established by the Great Powers of Europe, and the king of Belgium was placed at its head. This new state was regarded as the nucleus of a movement for the civilization of Central Africa, the region which had been for so many years explored and traversed by the celebrated Henry M. Stanley.

International Anti-Slavery Conference.

An International Anti-Slavery Conference convened at Brussels, November 18, 1889, and remained in session until July, 1890. This conference, composed of delegates from the leading nations of the world, considered measures for the suppression of the slave trade in Africa. During the year 1890 the Sultan of Zanzibar abolished slavery and admitted former slaves to equal civil rights with other freemen. This

Sultan had made treaties with Germany in 1884 and 1885 by which German trade and influence were established in portions of East Africa.

Belgium was threatened with a political crisis in May, 1890, in consequence of the agitation among the laboring masses, who had the sympathy of the army and the people with them. The Belgian Chamber of Deputies decided in favor of a revision of the Belgian constitution granting universal suffrage, May 21, 1890. Early in the spring of 1893 the determination of the Belgian workmen forced the Chambers to grant universal suffrage in order to avoid revolution.

Universal
Suffrage
Granted in
Belgium.

An international exposition, or world's fair, was held at Antwerp, Belgium, in 1894. One of the events of 1895 was the annexation of the Congo State, in Central Africa, to the Kingdom of Belgium. In more recent years there was a renewal of agitation for a still more extended suffrage, along with a wonderful growth of Socialism. The two most vital topics in Belgium, 1908, are the reform of the military service, public opinion being divided for and against compulsion, and the administration of the Congo Free State. Maladministration is freely and frequently insinuated, the King, Leopold, being largely blamed for unsatisfactory conditions in this supposed dependency of Belgium.

Congo
Affairs.

King Christian of Denmark died during the latter part of January, 1906, and his son, Frederick VIII., ascended the throne in January.

The Portuguese annexations in British Zambesia, as well as Major Serpa Pinto's massacre of natives who were allies of the British in South-eastern Africa, occasioned serious complications between Portugal and Great Britain. The Portuguese claimed certain territory between the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, but Great Britain denied these claims because the Portuguese had never occupied this territory. The Portuguese South Africa Company was at once organized for the development of Portuguese influence in Southern Africa.

South
African
Dispute.

In April, 1891, the Portuguese became involved in difficulties with natives of Mozambique and Guinea. Early in 1895 the natives of East Africa revolted against the Portuguese; and late in the same year there was a serious revolt against the Portuguese in Goa, in India, which was soon quelled.

Other
Revolts.

On January 23, 1908, the police of Lisbon discovered that a conspiracy was on foot to overthrow the Portuguese monarchy. On February 1, King Carlos and the Crown Prince of Portugal were assassinated. The King's second son was proclaimed King MANUEL II. In April, dangerous riots followed the election. The Monarchists secured a triumph; the Republicans charged fraud.

Portuguese
King
Assassi-
nated.

On September 11, 1890, a Liberal rising occurred in the Swiss canton of Ticino against the Ultramontane, or ruling party; and the rebels set up a provisional government of their own adherents. The national gov-

ernment of Switzerland sent troops to the scene of the disturbance and the cantonal government was taken out of the hands of the insurgents and order was restored.

Swiss
Anni-
versary.

Initiative
and Ref-
erendum
in Switz-
erland.

Switzerland celebrated the six hundredth anniversary of her national existence by grand festivities, beginning August 12, 1891. Until the adoption of the constitution of 1874 Switzerland, under the name of a republic, had been under aristocratic and oligarchic rule; but since the adoption of that commendable constitution the Swiss Republic has become practically a pure democracy and has secured the title of "the Model Republic," in consequence of her adoption of the Initiative and the Referendum, which have made that famous little republic truly a government of the people, by the people and for the people, and as pure a democracy as were ancient Athens and ancient Rome, where the people met in their popular assemblies to make laws. The Initiative and the Referendum were adopted in both the Swiss national government and in the various cantonal governments. The Initiative enables the Swiss people to secure legislative action on any proposed law by petition. The Referendum requires acts passed by the national and cantonal legislatures to be submitted to a popular vote for approval or rejection.

Switzer-
land as a
Model
Republic.

Thus there is one model and ideal republic in the world; one republic in which the people themselves rule by direct legislation; one which is not yet a great way off from being truly a government of the people, by the people and for the people; one which has been truly designated "the model republic"; one which has not developed into a plutocracy; one which is not a representative republic merely in theory, but in practice a corrupt oligarchy whose so-called representatives, or actual misrepresentatives, though elected by qualified voters, legislate in the interest of monopolies and corporations and against the interests of the masses for so much cash or other valuable consideration; one in which all laws are made by the people's chosen legislatures and by the people themselves, and none by judges on the bench; not one in which laws made by the legislative bodies are unmade by court decisions and executive vetoes, or in which there is a congress of four hundred men to make laws and a supreme court of nine men to set these laws aside; one in which there is equality before the law in practice as well as in theory; not one in which petty and obscure criminals are punished with long terms of imprisonment, while criminals of high social or political standing either go scot-free or are tenderly and considerably assigned lucrative positions in prisons and penitentiaries as a sham make-believe, to be pardoned out when their terms are one-fourth expired, or when it is supposed the public have forgotten their offenses; not one in which men are sent to prison for stealing a loaf of bread and to the highest legislative body in the land for stealing a railroad; not one in which justice

and court decisions are sold for so much cash or other valuable considerations; not one in which judges and law-makers are bribed by railroad passes to give decisions and pass laws in the interest of corporations and monopolies; not one in which the almighty dollar is the "god" in whom "we trust"—Switzerland is not that kind of a sham republic, but is a true, a real, an ideal and a model republic. The opening of the Simplon Tunnel, connecting Switzerland with Italy, on January 25, 1906, was made the occasion of a great public demonstration. In December, 1907, Dr. Ernest Brenner was elected President of the Republic. Since 1848, the Radical party has been in possession of power in all matters pertaining to Federal affairs. Switzerland's purchase of the five great railway lines and the gradual increase of Federal expenses against a decreasing revenue were, in 1908, the chief topics of discussion in the Republic.

In the early months of 1905 the long-standing controversy between the dual monarchy of Sweden and Norway had reached a crisis; and the venerable King Oscar II., aged seventy-six years, handed the reins of government to Crown Prince Gustavus "until further notice." Sweden and Norway have had their differences, mainly on fiscal and commercial questions, as in the case of the disagreements of that other dual monarchy of Europe, Austria-Hungary. The failure of the negotiations to establish separate consulates for Sweden and Norway produced a crisis in Norway, which desired separate consulates, while Sweden contended for the existing arrangement of one set of consulates for the dual monarchy. The Hagerup Ministry represented the pro-Swedish party in Norway, and the anti-Swedish party in that country contended for a separate department of foreign affairs and separate consulates for Norway in foreign countries. The anti-Swedish party was continually growing, and Dr. Nansen was one of its leaders. The Hagerup Ministry was succeeded by a coalition Cabinet with M. Nicholson as Prime Minister. The Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway, in his capacity as regent of the dual kingdom, issued a proclamation in which he declared that Norway's welfare depended upon her union with Sweden. Dr. Nansen issued an appeal to the Norwegian people, in which he contended that the Norwegians had done all they could do properly to obtain separate consular services for the two countries and that Sweden insisted upon conditions that no self-respecting nation could consider. The whole situation appeared somewhat critical.

Finally, on June 7, 1905, the union of Sweden and Norway, which was established in 1814, was dissolved by the action of the Norwegian Storting. This union, under which Sweden and Norway were united as a dual monarchy under the Bernadotte dynasty, with one department of foreign affairs and one consular service, was never satisfactory to Norway; and many difficulties arose between the two nations which made the relations between them very unpleasant. The action of King

**Swedo-
Nor-
wegian
Crisis.**

**Dissolu-
tion
of the
Union of
Sweden
and
Norway.**

Oscar II. in vetoing the bill passed by the Norwegian Storting providing for a separate consular service for Norway caused the Norwegian Storting to pass the resolution providing for the dissolution of the union between the two nations. In its address to the king the Storting recounted the differences that had arisen between the two nations since the consummation of their union in 1814, and ended with the invitation to King Oscar II. to designate a prince of his dynasty to occupy the throne of Norway on condition that the candidate should renounce his right to the crown of Sweden and that the prince whom he should name should be elected to the throne of Norway by the Norwegian people. As it was not probable that the King of Sweden would name an occupant for the Norwegian throne, it was thought likely that the Norwegian Storting would choose a prince of the royal family of Denmark or that it might proclaim Norway a republic.

**Haakon
Elected
King of
Norway.**

On November 18, 1905, the Norwegian government unanimously elected Prince Charles of Denmark as King of Norway, with the title of HAAKON VII. He took the oath of office on November 27. In June, 1906, the King and Queen were crowned. In 1907, the Norwegian Parliament granted limited suffrage to women, with an age limit and property qualifications.

**Gustav
Becomes
King of
Sweden.**

King Oscar of Sweden died on December 8, 1907. On January 4, 1908, his successor, Gustav, absolutely prohibited elaborate ceremonies at future opening of parliaments. He opened the First Swedish Parliament with simple ceremonies on January 16.

SECTION XXVI.—TURKEY, ROUMANIA, SERVIA, BULGARIA, GREECE (A. D. 1880–1908).

Dulcigno

WE have already alluded to the action of Great Britain under Mr. Gladstone's direction in forcing the Porte to compel the Albanians to surrender Dulcigno to the Montenegrins in the fall of 1880. During the same year, German officers undertook the reorganization of the Turkish army and drafted military regulations for the whole empire. These came into operation in 1887 and were so effective that quietness prevailed throughout the Turkish Empire until 1897, when a brief war, provoked by the latter Power, occurred between Turkey and Greece. (See page 3912). In December, 1905, the Sultan submitted to the demands of the Powers concerning Macedonia. In May, 1906, there were many revolutionary disturbances in that province. In April, 1907, the Sultan submitted to five demands of the European Powers.

The Young Turk Party in Turkey, which sprang up recently as one outcome of popular discontent with the Sultan's rule and absolutism, was, at the beginning, persecuted and kept down by killing and imprisonment

of the leaders, but the influence of this progressive organization made such strong and rapid headway, notwithstanding the Sultan's effort to suppress it, that the Sultan has been forced to extend to his people a constitution framed on the best Western models. Thus, like the Shah of Persia, Abdul Hamid II. has at last conceded personal and political liberty to his subjects, but only because the indications of popular anger became so ominous in Turkey that there was no alternative, as the Shah also discovered, except death by assassination, suicide, or by flight. During the premiership of Brateano, one of Roumania's greatest leaders, 1876-1888, a systematic campaign was carried on to bring about a union, social and political, of Roumanians, with all other branches of the Roumanian race. The members of this race, in the aggregate, outside the boundaries of Roumania proper—in Transylvania, the Banat, Bukowina and Macedonia—number several millions. This movement, in 1903, is still active and some results have already been achieved. The Roumanian problems of to-day include a plan to bring about the economic consolidation of the peasantry, the Jewish question, and that of encouraging foreign commerce and capital.

Constitu-
tion
Granted by
Sultan.

Rouman-
ian
Problems.

Roumania was erected into a kingdom, May 22, 1881, by the coronation of Prince CHARLES at Bucharest as *King of Roumania*, with a crown of steel manufactured from the cannon captured from the Turks at Plevna.

Rouma-
nia, a
Kingdom.

At the unanimous invitation of the Servian Skupshtina, or National Assembly, Prince MILAN accepted the title of *King of Servia*, March 6, 1882. Russia, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary assented to the elevation of Servia into a kingdom. King Milan issued a proclamation, March 9, 1882, thanking the European Powers for their sympathy toward Servia and defining his policy.

Servia, a
Kingdom.

The year 1882 opened with a revolt in Herzegovina against Austria-Hungary. The Austro-Hungarian troops routed the Herzegovinian insurgents in numerous small engagements during January, February, March, April and May, 1882. The Herzegovinian rebels were aided by Russian volunteers. The Herzegovinians established a provisional government, but the insurrection was quelled in May, 1882.

Herzogo-
vinian
Revolt
against
Austria-
Hungary.

As we have seen, the Congress of Berlin in 1878 had divided Turkey's former province of Bulgaria into two semi-independent provinces—the principality of Bulgaria, north of the Balkans, to be tributary to Turkey, with a Christian prince of its own selection; and the province of Eastern Roumelia, south of the Balkans, subject to Turkey, with a Christian governor to be appointed by the Sultan. As we have also seen, the Bulgarians chose a German prince, Alexander of Battenburg, for their ruler.

Bulgaria
and
Eastern
Rou-
melia.

The people of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia had never been satisfied with their political separation as arranged by the Treaty of Berlin;

Eastern
Rou-
melia's
Secession
and its
Result.

and on September 18, 1885, a sudden revolution at Philippopolis, the capital of Eastern Roumelia, made a prisoner of the governor of that province, and brought about a *de facto* union of Eastern Roumelia with Bulgaria, with the desire of the people of both provinces. This plain violation of the Treaty of Berlin at once reopened the Eastern Question. The Six Great European Powers virtually acquiesced in the Bulgarian-Eastern Roumelian union; but Turkey demanded the enforcement of the Treaty of Berlin, while Serbia and Greece also demanded the enforcement of that treaty or an extension of their own respective territories at the expense of both Turkey and Bulgaria. Turkey and Bulgaria armed against each other, and Serbia and Greece armed against both Turkey and Bulgaria; while the Six Great European Powers endeavored to preserve the peace of Europe by a conference of their ambassadors at Constantinople in October, 1885.

Servia's
Warlike
Attitude.

Servia and Greece never had been satisfied with the limits assigned to them by the Six Great European Powers in the Treaty of Berlin. Servia always regarded the western portion of Bulgaria, embracing the strong fortress of Widin and the present Bulgarian capital, Sophia, as rightfully a part of Servian territory, because it belonged to Old Servia in the Middle Ages, when Servia was a great independent kingdom. Servia also demanded the extension of her territory southward, so as to embrace all that once belonged to the Old Servian kingdom, as a set-off to the sudden increase of Bulgarian territory by the union of Eastern Roumelia with Bulgaria, as brought about by the violation of the Treaty of Berlin by the Bulgarian-Eastern Roumelian revolution of September 18, 1885.

Servo-
Bulgarian
War.

Servia accordingly waged war on Bulgaria about the middle of October, 1885. King Milan of Servia was obliged to assume this aggressive attitude in order to save his crown, as any failure on his part to satisfy the martial ardor of his subjects would have resulted in his dethronement by a popular revolution at Belgrade. Prince Alexander of Bulgaria was anxious to avoid a war with Servia, as he desired to unite with the King of Servia in a war against the Turks. But Servia was aggressive and firm in her attitude, demanding either a restoration of the *status quo ante* in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia or an extension of Servian territory. The Servians were far superior to the Bulgarians as a military people. The Servian army numbered about one hundred and seventy thousand men; while the united armies of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia numbered about one hundred and thirty-five thousand men, far inferior in valor and discipline to the Servians.

Servian
Victories
and
Defeats.

The Servian armies invaded Bulgaria at several points November 14, 1885, and advanced on Sophia and Widin. There was constant fighting for six days, November 14-19, 1885, during the first four of which the Servian armies under King Milan were victorious. The tables were thus

completely turned. The Servians were now on the defensive, and King Milan was fighting for his throne. The Great Powers proposed an armistice, and King Milan sued for peace; but Prince Alexander refused to treat until Servia agreed to pay a war-indemnity to Bulgaria. An armistice was concluded by the intervention of the Great Powers; but Servia rejected Bulgaria's terms of peace, and hostilities were renewed in December. After a long and desperate engagement, the Servians captured the town of Veliki-Izor from the Bulgarians, December 12, 1885. The mediation of the Great Powers again brought on a suspension of hostilities, which led to a treaty of peace.

Peace.

In the fall of 1886 the irrepressible Eastern Question again came to the front in general European politics, and the unsettled East again occupied the attention of the European public. Although Russia brought about the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire by the absolute independence of Servia, Roumania and Montenegro and the semi-independence of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, she desired all these petty states of the Balkan peninsula to be subservient to her wishes and not to thwart her in anywise in her ultimate designs upon Constantinople and the dominion of the entire Balkan peninsula. Bulgaria, Roumania and Servia, since their liberation from Turkish rule, have shown themselves as determined to be as free of Russian dictation and arrogance as they had been to be free of the Ottoman yoke.

**Russia's
Designs
on the
New
Balkan
States.**

Inharmonious relations for several years had existed between Russia and Bulgaria, Bulgaria's aims being in the way of Russia's designs. Prince Alexander of Bulgaria in every way had shown himself to be an able and high-spirited ruler and had won the affections of the great majority of his subjects. Although he ultimately failed in his design for the complete union of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia in 1885 and had to content himself with the governorship of Eastern Roumelia, through the opposition of Turkey, Russia and the other Great European Powers, which would not consent to have the Treaty of Berlin thus torn to pieces, he added immensely to his own prestige as a ruler and to that of Bulgaria as a state by his military victories over the Servian invaders of his dominions in the fall of 1885.

**Prince
Alexander
of
Bulgaria.**

Russia never forgave Prince Alexander for his independent spirit and his refusal to be the mere puppet of Russia in her ambitious designs, and for that reason Russia earnestly desired and insidiously endeavored to encompass his overthrow. His dismissal of the Russian officers in the Bulgarian army gave mortal offense to the Czar's government and made him the victim of a Russian plot. Prince Alexander was compelled to abdicate in the night, in consequence of a pro-Russian conspiracy in his army, brought about by the intrigues and the secret instigation of General Kaulbars, the Russian agent in Bulgaria; the

**His
Abdica-
tion
Forced
by
Russia.**

Prince's palace at Sophia having been invaded by his enemies at midnight, August 19-20, 1886. The prince was escorted to the frontier, and the conspirators formed a provisional government with the support of the Russian agent; but this pro-Russian military conspiracy totally failed, because of the steadfast loyalty of the Bulgarians to Prince Alexander.

His
Return
and
Restora-
tion

This sudden revolution produced a reaction in his favor, and the greater part of his subjects and soldiers declared their determination to fight for their deposed prince. The provisional government established at Sophia by the friends of Russia in the Bulgarian army was overthrown, and the leading military conspirators were court-martialed and sentenced to military execution, August 25, 1886. This sudden reaction and counter revolution in Prince Alexander's favor showed that the military conspirators had reckoned without their host, and the prince returned to Bulgaria.

His
Second
Abdica-
tion
Forced
by
Russia.

The interference of General Kaulbars, the Russian agent in Bulgaria, prevented the punishment of the conspirators who had kidnapped and deposed Prince Alexander. The independent spirit of the Bulgarian people, as shown in their loyalty and devotion to their prince, angered the Czar Alexander III. of Russia; and Prince Alexander was obliged to abdicate the Bulgarian throne, to appease the anger of the Russian Autocrat, although the prince possessed the devoted support of his subjects, August 30, 1886. He departed to his native home in Germany, and a regency was appointed by the Bulgarian Sobranje until a new prince could be elected.

Victory
of the
Anti-
Russian
Party in
Bulgaria.

The insignificance of the pro-Russian party in Bulgaria was shown by the Bulgarian elections on October 12, 1886, when the Bulgarian Ministry was sustained by an immense majority of the Bulgarian people, who re-elected a new assembly, or Sobranje, with a large anti-Russian majority. This was a great disappointment to the Czar of Russia. But the Bulgarian people were determined to preserve their national independence.

Ferdinand of
Saxe-
Coburg-
Gotha
Elected
Prince of
Bulgaria.

The Czar Alexander III. desired the election of Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia as Prince of Bulgaria, but the Bulgarian Sobranje and people refused to accept him. On July 7, 1887, the Bulgarian Sobranje elected Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha as Prince of Bulgaria; and that prince accepted the new dignity notwithstanding the protests and remonstrances of Russia. Prince Ferdinand arrived at the Bulgarian capital in August, 1887, and was welcomed with enthusiasm by his new subjects. His election was confirmed by the Sultan of Turkey. Russia was very angry and proposed to Turkey a joint Russo-Turkish occupation of Bulgaria. Russia also appealed to the other Great Powers and sought to prevent the legalization of Prince Ferdinand's

Russia's
Fruitless
Opposi-
tion.

acts. The new prince's throne was thus very shaky at first, and Bulgaria appealed to Turkey for aid in case of a Russian occupation of Bulgaria. On September 2, 1887, a new Ministry under M. Stamboloff was formed in Bulgaria. Prince Ferdinand's candidates were everywhere chosen to the Sobranje in the elections held on October 9, 1887, thus showing that he was sustained by the great mass of the Bulgarian people.

On March 6, 1889, King Milan of Serbia, who in the meantime had been divorced from his queen, Natalie, abdicated his throne in favor of his little son, ALEXANDER I., and appointed a regency under M. Ristitch, his Prime Minister, to conduct the government during the little king's minority.

King
Milan's
Abdica-
tion.

In the spring of 1890 Bulgaria was disturbed by the conspiracy of Major Panitza against Prince Ferdinand and Prime Minister Stamboloff, at Sophia; and the Russian Minister at Bucharest was implicated in this plot. At the trial of Major Panitza, in May, 1890, the complicity of Russian officials was clearly proven. Major Panitza and eight others were found guilty in June. Panitza was sentenced to be shot and the other conspirators to imprisonment. Panitza was shot June 28, 1890.

Major
Panitza's
Plot in
Bulgaria.

In the meantime the intrigues of ex-Queen Natalie, the divorced wife of King Milan of Serbia, led to her expulsion from Serbia, in May, 1891, by the Servian government; but the populace of Belgrade arose in her favor, and for several days the Servian capital was disturbed by serious riots. Two years later the young King Alexander I. deposed the regents by a *coup d'état*, seizing them by violence and taking the government into his own hands, April 13, 1893.

Queen
Natalie
and the
Servians.

Alex-
ander
I. of
Serbia.

At the middle of July, 1895, the civilized world was startled by the news of the brutal assassination of Stamboloff, the great Bulgarian patriot-statesman, the "Bismarck of Bulgaria," who had labored incessantly for the interests and independence of his country, aiming to make Bulgaria independent of Russian influence and as thoroughly free from Russian as from Turkish control, thus arousing the antagonism of Russia and of the pro-Russian party in Bulgaria, which at length encompassed his overthrow by driving him from the office of Prime Minister of Bulgaria, May 29, 1894, and which finally employed a band of assassins to murder the distinguished patriot-statesman. Stamboloff died from the effects of the brutal mutilations and wounds inflicted upon him by his dastardly assassins, July 15, 1895. The assassins were afterward tried, but the menaces of Russia and the influence of the pro-Russian party in Bulgaria prevented their punishment. It probably never will be known who planned this dastardly crime, who gave the orders and who struck the blow; but it is known that the Bulgarian au-

Assassin-
ation of
Stambo-
loff.

thorities refused a passport to Stamboloff; that the gendarmes gave ground for the gravest suspicion by refusing to pursue the murderers and by arresting Stamboloff's servant while he was in full pursuit of them, and that the investigations afterward conducted were the merest sham. Everybody believed that the orders came from some of Stamboloff's enemies in high places who desired to have revenge for what they and their friends had suffered from his rigorous rule and who feared very unpleasant consequences to themselves in the event of his restoration to power. The funeral of this patriot-statesman was marked by outbreaks of party feeling which astounded Western Europe.

Coup
d'Etat in
Greece.

In Greece the year 1895 was signalized by a small *coup d'état* on the part of the Crown Prince, followed by the resignation of Tricoupis, the Greek Prime Minister, who announced that he retired from politics permanently. In June, 1905, the then Prime Minister of Greece, Delyanuis, was assassinated. In April, 1906, the International Olympic games were held at Athens.

Turkish
Massa-
cres of
Arme-
nians.

During 1894 and 1895 the Turks committed great atrocities and outrages upon the Christians of Armenia, massacring more than a hundred thousand of them, and thus aroused the public sentiment of European nations against the Sultan and his Moslem subjects. Great Britain and the other European Powers protested to the Sultan against these outrages, whereupon the Ottoman Porte appointed a commission to investigate the outrages, but no important results were developed by the commission's investigation. In May, 1895, Great Britain, France and Russia made a demand upon the Sultan of Turkey for reforms in Armenia and for the protection of the Christians of that Turkish province. On May 30, 1895, the British, French and Russian consular officers at Jeddah were attacked by Bedouin Arabs, and the British vice-consul was killed and the British and Russian consuls were wounded. British, French and Russian warships were at once sent to Jeddah, and Turkey finally yielded to the demands of the Powers. In September, 1896, there was a wholesale massacre of Armenian Christians in Constantinople. These Armenian massacres will be detailed more fully in a separate section, as their perpetration aroused the horror of all Christendom.

The
Jeddah
Outrage.

Græco-
Turkish
War.

In March, 1897, a new revolt against the Turks in Crete brought on a short war between Greece and Turkey, the Greeks sympathizing with the Cretans and forcing their own government to espouse the Cretan cause. But the Great European Powers landed forces on the island of Crete and forced the Cretans to desist from their revolt, while the Turkish armies crossed the frontier into Greece and defeated the Greeks in Thessaly so effectually that Greece was obliged to accept humiliating terms of peace after a campaign of less than two months. The account of this war will be dwelt on more fully in a separate section.

In 1899 a would-be-assassin named Knesevitch attempted to murder King Alexander of Servia. His trial was a scandalous effort to implicate various political opponents of the existing Servian government and ended in the assassin's condemnation, and he was shot on the same day. Pastitsch, the Radical leader, found guilty of complicity and sentenced to five years' imprisonment, was immediately pardoned; and he alienated the sympathies of his friends by his extremely-undignified letter of thanks to the king.

Plot
against
King
Alex-
ander of
Servia.

In 1901 Servia adopted a new constitution, but late in 1902 King Alexander began acting very arbitrarily, appointing a Ministry consisting chiefly of military men and proroguing the Skupshtina, or Servian National Assembly, because it opposed the new Cabinet, thus evincing a desire to rule as a dictator or an absolute monarch through his army.

His
Arbitrary
Rule.

In April, 1903, King Alexander of Servia issued a proclamation suspending the constitution, repealing certain laws passed thereunder, retiring Councilors of State, dissolving the Skupshtina and enacting the laws as they existed prior to the adoption of the constitution in 1901. A few minutes later King Alexander issued another proclamation restoring the constitution.

His Usur-
pation.

On June 11, 1903, King Alexander and Queen Draga of Servia were brutally assassinated by certain army officers who had conspired to overthrow the reigning dynasty because of the disrespect with which the Servian people regarded the queen. Immediately after the dreadful tragedy a provisional Cabinet was formed; and the constitution which had existed before March 23, 1903, was reëstablished. Prince Peter Karageorgevitch was unanimously chosen King of Servia, as King PETER I., by the Servian House of Representatives; and the Obrenovitch dynasty was declared excluded from the Servian throne. This terrible tragedy excited horror throughout the civilized world; and Great Britain, the United States and some other nations refused to recognize the new Servian government because it was founded on assassination. King Peter was formally crowned with imposing ceremonies on September 21, 1904.

Assassin-
ation of
King
Alex-
ander and
Queen
Draga.

In July, 1902, an outbreak against the Turks occurred at Monastir, in Macedonia, where a severe conflict and a brutal massacre of the Christians occurred. This outbreak was the signal for risings in many other towns and villages of Macedonia; and a fierce guerrilla warfare of two years followed, during which many small conflicts occurred and many atrocities and outrages were perpetrated by both Moslems and Christians, people being massacred and buildings being blown up with dynamite. The Macedonian Christians were aiming at an independent Macedonian republic. A formidable revolt against the Turks in

Anti-
Turkish
Revolts in
Macedo-
nia and
Albania.

Albania was in progress at the same time ; but the Albanians were fighting merely for the amelioration of their condition and for larger liberty under Turkish rule, not for separation from the Ottoman Empire. There were menaces of war between Turkey and Bulgaria, as the Bulgarians sympathized with their Christian brethren in Macedonia ; while Russia and Austria-Hungary also threatened to intervene in the interest of the Macedonians, and the Ottoman Porte was obliged to accept the Austro-Hungarian project of reforms in Macedonia for the sake of peace.

SECTION XXVII.—TURKEY AND THE ARMENIAN MASSACRES (A. D. 1894–1896).

Beginning
of the
Armenian
Troubles.

DURING 1894 and 1895 the Turks committed great atrocities and outrages upon the Christians of Armenia and thus aroused the public sentiment of European nations against the Sultan and his Moslem subjects. During those years the public attention of Europe was directed to these massacres and to the persistent efforts of the European ambassadors at Constantinople to induce the Sultan of Turkey to stop them. Grave troubles began early in 1894 in the mountainous region south of Mush, near Lake Van, in Armenia, a region troubled from time immemorial by the feuds of Mohammedan Kurds, an essentially-fighting race, and Christian Armenians, a more peaceable and commercial people. For many past generations the Armenian Christians had been content to pay a sort of tribute or blackmail to their powerful neighbors, but at the time in question they had found it difficult to do this and also pay the taxes due Turkish government, especially in the increased amount required by the Pasha or his deputy. The discontent of the Armenians was worked upon by the Armenian Committees in Constantinople and London, and early in 1894 agitators were in Armenia urging the Christians in that country to resistance to their Mussulman oppressors and persecutors.

Whole-
sale
Massa-
cres.

The Armenian resistance first broke out at Dalvorig, in June, 1894, where the Armenians, believing that the Kurds, under orders from Constantinople, intended to attack them, struck the first blow and drove off the Kurds with heavy loss. Skirmishes became of frequent occurrence until Turkish regulars were sent into the district, and the Turkish policy of extermination began to be executed in earnest. Then followed the systematic destruction of whole groups of Armenian villages, the wholesale massacre of men, women and children, culminating in the capture of the mountain refuge to which about four or five thousand of them had betaken themselves and the slaughter which then occurred.

The Armenian Committees exerted pressure on the Ottoman Porte through the Great Powers of Europe. Lord Kimberley expressed to an Armenian deputation in London and to members of the British Parliament the deep concern of the British government, and he assured the Armenian deputation that the European Powers were agreed as to the necessity of joint action in the matter. All through the spring, summer and fall of 1895 the joint action of the Great Powers was exercised in the form of constant meetings of the British, French and Russian ambassadors at Constantinople, constant notes to the Turkish government, audiences with the Sultan and presentation of schemes of reform. The ambassadors of Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary afterward joined those of Great Britain, France and Russia in these efforts for the amelioration of the Armenians. The British ambassador, Sir Philip Currie, was specially energetic in this matter.

Action
of the
European
Powers.

The Sultan's policy on these occasions was the traditional Turkish policy, first of reckoning on the jealousies of the Great European Powers and then of putting them off by promises and fair words. Meanwhile on several occasions there had been terrible outbreaks in various Armenian provinces. One of these violent outbreaks occurred at Zeitun, where the Armenian population compelled a force of Turkish regulars to surrender and to hand over a strong position, which, however, was recaptured by the Turks soon afterward.

Progress
of Events
in
Armenia.

In July, 1895, after long delay, Shakir Pasha was appointed "to supervise the carrying out of reforms in Armenia," but this appointment did not produce any satisfactory results. The European ambassadors continued to exert pressure, but by the middle of August the Ottoman Porte again rejected their demand for the admission of foreign control over the execution of the proposed reforms, and soon afterward it sent a circular to its agents in other countries bitterly complaining of Great Britain's attitude. But by the middle of October the Sultan had yielded so far as to issue an *Irade* approving the scheme of reforms formulated by the British, French and Russian ambassadors, along with the Porte, the weakest point of which was that no guarantee was given that these reforms would be executed. This *Irade* was not produced until after the riots in Constantinople had brought the situation vividly before the Sultan's mind. Soon afterward came Lord Salisbury's important speech at the Guildhall, in London, in which, while giving various assurances as to the entire agreement of the Great Powers, he solemnly warned the Sultan of Turkey that misgovernment brought with it its own inevitable doom. The strange sequel of this was perhaps a unique experience for a British statesman. In a speech at Brighton, on November 18, 1895, Lord Salisbury announced to his hearers that "a very distinguished and distant correspondent—no less a person than

the Sultan of Turkey"—had sent him a message saying that he was very much pained by the sentence in the Guildhall speech wherein Lord Salisbury had expressed little confidence that the promised reforms would be executed. Said the Sultan: "I repeat, I will execute reforms. I will take the paper containing them, place it before me and see myself that every article is put in force. This is my earnest determination, and I give him my word of honor." This surprising communication had the merit of putting on record before the whole world the Sultan's promise. That the European ambassadors did not have confidence in his ability to maintain order in his own capital was shown by the subsequent incident of the guardships, when they pressed for permission for each to order up a second ship for the protection of the European community in Constantinople in case of a renewal of rioting in that city. The Sultan resisted this request for a full fortnight. At the same time Said Pasha, an ex-Grand Vizier, believing that his life was in danger from the Sultan, fled for refuge to the British embassy in Constantinople, thus naturally causing a serious political scandal. Said Pasha was finally induced to return to his own home just at the time that the Sultan yielded about the guardships, the one step being a concession to the wishes of the European ambassadors and the other to the desire of the Sultan. There were a number of changes of Ministry in Turkey during 1895; but this was very immaterial, as the Sultan's Ministers are but passive instruments for the execution of his will.

Outbreak
at
Jeddah.

There were other disturbances in the Ottoman Empire besides the Armenian troubles and revolts in Macedonia during the year. On May 30, 1895, the British, French and Russian consular officers at Jeddah were assailed by Bedouin Arabs, who killed the British vice-consul and wounded the British and Russian consuls. British, French and Russian warships at once proceeded to Jeddah, and Turkey finally conceded the demands of the Powers.

The Turkish massacres of Armenians did not cease in the year 1896, though the scenes of greatest horror in that year were in the Turkish capital itself. The two chief massacres of that year in Armenia were at Orfah and at Egiun, which showed that the Ottoman soldiery and the native Mussulmans had lost none of their ferocity and that the most trifling provocation would lead to an outbreak, in which they were certain to be supported by their government. Under the very eyes of the European ambassadors and of the European residents of Constantinople, on August 25, 1896, the leaders of the Armenian Revolutionary Society presented a memorial to the European embassies saying that they were reduced to utter despair. The next day they exhibited their despair by an outrage which could be characterized only as a deed of

Armenian
Outrages
in Constantinople.

madmen. A group of about twenty-five Armenians made their appearance in the Ottoman Bank at Galata and fired bombs, and after some of the officials had fled and some had gone in search of troops these Armenian dynamiters closed the doors and barricaded the windows and threatened to destroy the whole place with dynamite unless all their demands were conceded. Finally Sir Edward Vincent, the British representative, arranged for their surrender; whereupon they gave up the bank to its owners and were sent beyond the reach of the Sultan's vengeance. Nevertheless that vengeance was visited upon the Armenian population of the Ottoman capital for two full days, during which a Turkish mob of the lowest class, armed with clubs and yataghans, "went about hunting Armenians and braining or disemboweling them in the streets," according to the language of the *London Times* correspondent. For four days and nights this pursuit continued, and the European embassies estimated that there were more than five thousand Armenians massacred on this dreadful occasion. The bloody massacres did not satisfy the Turkish thirst for vengeance, as the most unrelenting persecutions followed in the wake of the massacre. In spite of the protests of the ambassadors of the European Powers, hundreds of unfortunate Armenians were cast into Turkish prisons, from which many of them were not liberated. A "Special Commission" was formed nominally to try the Turkish rioters; but it was soon converted into an agency to try the Armenians, and it was with the utmost difficulty that the Sultan of Turkey was finally induced to proclaim an amnesty applying at least to the humbler victims of his animosity.

The effects of these horrible occurrences were different in the different European countries. In Russia, Germany and Austria-Hungary public sentiment was affected very slightly, and but slightly more in France; but the English people were aroused very profoundly and held many indignation meetings, though they were sensible of the great diplomatic difficulties of the situation, so that only a very few voices were heard in favor of isolated British action. Mr. Gladstone, emerging from his retirement to speak at Liverpool, advocated the severance of diplomatic relations with the Ottoman Porte; but even he did not declare openly in favor of a resort to extreme measures by Great Britain alone. In the meantime there was restless activity among the ambassadors of the Great Powers at Constantinople, who had succeeded in effecting an adjustment of the troublesome Cretan difficulty earlier in the year; and Lord Salisbury's speech at the Guildhall was mildly optimistic regarding the outcome of the Armenian trouble as a result of action on the part of the European concert. One of the causes of Lord Rosebery's resignation of the leadership of the Liberal party in Great Britain was his lack of agreement with some of his party associates and

Effect in
Other
Lands.

in some degree with Mr. Gladstone in regard to the policy to be pursued in this crisis. Just after his resignation of the Liberal leadership he delivered a speech at Edinburgh, October 9, 1896, opposing isolated action on the part of Great Britain; and this speech greatly influenced public sentiment in Great Britain.

SECTION XXVIII.—GRÆCO-TURKISH WAR (A. D. 1897).

**The
Hostile
Elements
in Crete.**

THE troublesome Cretan question finally caused a short war between Greece and Turkey in the spring of 1897, which ended very disastrously for Greece, as we shall see presently. At the beginning of the year the Christians and Mohammedans were arrayed against each other in hostile camps, the Christians occupying the interior of the island and the Mohammedans holding possession of the coast towns. Bloody conflicts, pillage, massacres and assassinations occurred daily; and the assembled warships of the Great European Powers found great difficulty in forcing the hostile elements in the island to keep the peace, while the European ambassadors at Constantinople were unable to induce the Sultan of Turkey to consent to any satisfactory arrangement.

**Greek
Invasion
of Crete.**

Early in February, 1897, the plans of the Greek agitators in Athens—the Ethnike Hetairia and their supporter, Prime Minister Delyanni—were matured fully; and King George was forced or persuaded to give his consent to overt action. The occasion was a bloody conflict between the Christians and the Mohammedans in the streets of Canea, the chief town of Crete; the Mohammedans being aided by Turkish soldiers. Amid the wildest popular enthusiasm in Greece, Prince George, son of the King of Greece, left the Piræus for Canea, with a flotilla of eight torpedo-boats and with a transport, and landed a considerable force of Greek troops under Colonel Vassos, who announced that he had come to take possession of Crete for his father, King George of Greece. The divided counsels of the allied Powers prevented them from taking concerted action to prevent the Greek soldiers from landing, and the matter was compromised. The Greek troops landed at Canea and promptly joined the insurgents on the hills; whereupon the foreign warships landed a detachment of four hundred and fifty men, who at once occupied Canea to prevent a hostile encounter between the Greeks and the Turks.

**Allied
European
Ulti-
matum
to the
Ottoman
and
Hellenic
Govern-
ments**

On March 2, 1897, the allied Powers came to an agreement upon united action, and they delivered an ultimatum to the Ottoman and Hellenic governments, saying that the Powers had agreed upon concerted action with the object of putting an end to a situation which it did not rest with them to prevent, but the prolongation of which would

be calculated to compromise the peace of Europe. The ultimatum accordingly declared that Crete could not be annexed to Greece under existing circumstances, and that, in view of Turkish delays, the Powers, while maintaining the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, were resolved to confer an absolutely-effective autonomous *régime* upon Crete, in tended to assure the island a separate government under the high suzerainty of the Sultan. The ultimatum allowed the Greek government six days to withdraw its ships and troops, saying that if Greece refused to comply with this demand the Powers were irrevocably determined to hesitate at no measure of compulsion.

Greece was resolved to wrest Crete from Turkey and annex that island to herself; while the Great Powers of Europe were just as determined that she should not seize the island, as they feared that such action would give full vent to the pent-up annexation passion among the new Balkan states of Bulgaria, Servia and Montenegro, thus bringing about a general European war. The Great Powers of Europe were obliged either to permit Greece to go to war with Turkey or to compel her to keep the peace by enforcing the demands contained in their ultimatum. The Conservative Ministry under Lord Salisbury in Great Britain feared to blockade the coasts of Greece with British warships, lest such action would arouse a popular agitation in England which might imperil the political tenure of the party in power; and thus Greece was left free to embark on her rash enterprise of war with her more powerful neighbor and to repent of her rashness when too late.

Greece refused to withdraw her troops from Crete; while the Ottoman Porte announced its willingness to adopt the recommendations of the Great European Powers for the establishment of autonomy in Crete, thus ingeniously putting itself in the right. A series of exciting incidents occurred in Crete, where the allied forces sought to prevent a collision between the Turkish and Greek troops. Five hundred men-of-war's men, led by the British consul, Sir A. Biliotti, rescued about two thousand persons in the town of Candano. Despite the efforts of the allied forces in Crete to prevent a collision between the Greeks and the Turks, there was general fighting and mutual destruction of property for a long time.

In the meantime preparations for war were going on rapidly in Greece itself; and, unfortunately, the Greek government was encouraged to persevere in its rash course by various alien influences, especially by a portion of the Radical party in England. Early in March, 1897, a hundred Radical members of the British Parliament affixed their signatures to a telegram of sympathy and encouragement to King George of Greece, who inferred from this that Great Britain would not leave him to suffer in the struggle to which he was hastening so inconsider-

Attitude
of Greece
and the
Great
Powers.

Events
in Crete.

Effect of
British
Radical
Sym-
pathy in
Greece.

Allied
Blockade
in Crete.

ately. A few days later the allied Powers formally proclaimed a blockade of Crete, the reasons for which were explained in a remarkable speech by M. Hanotaux, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, with which Lord Salisbury expressed his hearty concurrence.

Greek and
Turkish
Armies.

In the meantime the greatest enthusiasm prevailed in Greece itself. The reservists went manfully to their colors; and by the end of March, 1897, a large Greek army was massed on the frontier, ready to invade Turkish territory, the Crown Prince of Greece having been appointed commander-in-chief of the Greek forces and having established his headquarters at Larissa, in Thessaly. The Turks were energetically pushing forward their preparations more effectively, though the newspapers mentioned very little about them; and the ordinary reader did not then comprehend what he realized a month afterward—that the reorganization of the Turkish army by German officers had progressed with such efficiency that the Turks had a finely-disciplined army of seven hundred thousand men to crush the Greek army of only two hundred thousand, the Turkish military organization including such matters as the efficient working of military railways and other means of rapid mobilization.

Warning
from the
Great
Powers.

On the eve of the outbreak of war the Great Powers of Europe addressed a note to both the belligerent nations warning them that the aggressor would be held responsible for the consequences and would not be permitted to derive the slightest advantage from his hasty action; but this note did not have the slightest effect upon the belligerents, whose armed forces were now within striking distance of one another. The only appreciable effect the warning note of the Great Powers may have had was that of holding back Edhem Pasha's army until he was actually attacked. The war did not actually break out before April 17, 1897, when the Greek Minister in Constantinople received his passports, when hostilities at once broke out on the Græco-Turkish frontier.

Battles of
Maluna
Pass and
Arta.

A fierce battle, lasting one full night and one whole day, was fought for the command of the Maluna Pass, between Elassona and Larissa. The Greeks fought well, but the tide of battle was against them from the beginning. The Turks advanced at all points, captured the Greek position and drove the Greek army down into the plain of Thessaly. About the same time fighting occurred in and about the Gulf of Arta, where the Greek fleet and the western division of the Greek army had better success for a time and were soon able to advance into Epirus. But to the great disappointment of the Greek invaders, they were not supported by risings in Epirus and in Macedonia, as they had been promised by their leaders.

Greek
Defeats
and
Turkish
Occupation of
Larissa.

The loss of the Maluna Pass was followed by a series of Greek defeats; and on Sunday, April 25, 1897, Edhem Pasha telegraphed to his government at Constantinople as follows: "Larissa was occupied to-

day by the cavalry of the imperial army. The Hellenic troops fled in disorder, abandoning a large quantity of arms and ammunition." As Larissa was indefensible the Crown Prince of Greece was obliged to retreat to Pharsala and Velesino; Pharsala being the ancient Pharsalia, famous as the site of the great battlefield which made Cæsar master of the Roman world by his decisive victory over his rival, Pompey. The Greek retreat before the Turks soon became a stampede, and the Greeks lost all their previous courage and became thoroughly demoralized. The enterprising newspaper correspondents at the seat of war made the Greek retreat from Mati to Larissa instantly famous.

**Greek
Retreat to
Pharsala
and
Valestino.**

A few days after the Greek flight from Larissa, King George of Greece dismissed Prime Minister Delyanni from office and appointed M. Ralli as his successor, the new Prime Minister being supposed to be in favor of peace. Ralli's first act was to recall Colonel Vassos from Crete, but for a time at least he determined to continue the war.

**Change of
Ministry
in Greece.**

At the beginning of May there was severe fighting at Velesino, where the Greeks under Colonel Smolensky, the only Greek officer who gained a reputation during the war, fought well and held their ground; while in Epirus, after much blundering and aimless fighting, the Greek army of eleven thousand men evacuated its strong position, retreated from Epirus and returned to Arta. After the battle of Velesino the Turks attacked Pharsala and were repulsed, May 5, 1897; but during the night the Crown Prince of Greece retreated to Domokos, where there was some more fighting; and on May 8th the Turks captured Volo, so that the Greeks were beaten all along the line.

**Battle of
Valestino.**

**Greek
Retreat
from
Epirus.**

**Battle of
Pharsala.**

**Capture
of Volo.**

As the Greek government recalled its troops from Crete on the very day of the capture of Volo, May 8, 1897, there was no longer any obstacle to the intervention of the Great Powers of Europe, whose mediation was offered on May 11th and was accepted at once by the belligerents. Long and tedious negotiations at Constantinople followed between the Turkish government, represented by Tewfik Pasha, and the ambassadors of the Six Great Powers of Europe. Sultan Abdul Hamid II. proved to be a typical Oriental sovereign, both in government and in diplomacy; and these peace negotiations can be regarded as his masterpiece. Beginning by professing the utmost moderation, he soon amazed the ambassadors of the Six Great Powers as well as all Europe by asking an indemnity of ten million pounds sterling (equal to fifty million American dollars); the cession of Thessaly by Greece to Turkey; the abolition of the Capitulations affecting Greek subjects in Turkey, also an extradition treaty.

**Foreign
Mediation
and
Peace
Negotia-
tions at
Constan-
tinople.**

**Extraor-
dinary
Turkish
Demands.**

Finally, after exactly four months of negotiation, the Peace of Constantinople was concluded, by which Sultan Abdul Hamid II. accepted an indemnity of four million pounds sterling (equivalent to twenty

**Peace of
Constan-
tinople.**

million American dollars) as an indemnity from Greece, to secure the payment of which an international financial commission was to be appointed at Athens; the treaty also providing for a rectification of the Thessalian frontier giving Turkey some strategical advantages, also for the appointment of negotiators who were to settle the terms of various consular and other conventions between Turkey and Greece. Greece accepted the terms of this treaty of peace, in spite of the indignation of ex-Prime Minister Delyanni and his supporters; and thereafter the conditions of the treaty were observed fairly by both nations, whose respective plenipotentiaries settled the other points at issue.

Prime
Minister
Ralli's
Accusa-
tion.

The negotiations put a serious strain upon the European concert, and it was often very difficult for Lord Salisbury to agree to the proposals of Germany, which generally were thought to be extremely harsh. In laying the treaty before the Greek Chamber of Deputies, Prime Minister Ralli accused Germany of being responsible for the most humiliating conditions for Greece; and there was no doubt that he was right in his accusation. Although no vote of the Greek Chamber of Deputies could nullify the treaty of peace, the irrepressible Delyanni proposed a vote of want of confidence in the Ralli Ministry, and this proposal was adopted by a vote of ninety-three to seventy-one; whereupon the Ralli Ministry resigned and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Zaimis, a member of Delyanni's party. Thenceforth the Thessalian refugees returned slowly to their homes, but very little was done to improve the condition of affairs in Crete. Several suitable governors were suggested and almost accepted, but finally some hitch would necessitate the repetition of all the negotiations.

Another
Change of
Ministry
in Greece.

SECTION XXIX.—PEACE CONFERENCES AT THE HAGUE (1899, 1907).

Disarma-
ment
Scheme
of Czar
Nicholas
II.

ONE of the most remarkable incidents of the century now approaching its close was the appeal of Czar Nicholas II. of Russia to the nations of the world in favor of a policy of general disarmament. The act of the young Autocrat of all the Russias created a most profound sensation throughout the civilized world, coming at a time when the political atmosphere of Europe was electric with apprehension in consequence of serious complications in the Far East, on the upper Nile and in other quarters, and in consequence of the astounding revelations in the Dreyfus case in France, which had so covered the general staff of the idolized French army with obloquy that a foreign war would have been welcomed as a means of saving the honor of the army in public opinion by diverting popular attention from the scandal, and coming

also from that Power whose aggressive and even menacing diplomacy in China and in other quarters was a chief source of anxiety in diplomatic circles. Like the burst of sunshine through the rift in the storm cloud its effect was most soothing. It was a welcome relief to the troubled mind of the Old World. It may have been designed to produce such effect, as the patience of the British public over the threatening situation in China in consequence of Russian aggressiveness was well-nigh becoming exhausted, and the solid rooting of Anglo-American friendship and the sudden reviving of Anglo-German cordiality evidently caused anxiety to the bureaucratic mind at St. Petersburg, an anxiety which was further heightened by the friendship between the Emperor William II. of Germany and the Sultan of Turkey in the negotiations growing out of the Græco-Turkish War of 1897, and by the preparations of the German Emperor for his pilgrimage to Jerusalem, which would advance the increasing commercial interests of Germany in Syria and Asia Minor. With the exception of France the Czar was given credit for sincerity in his appeal for general disarmament and against militarism, and his action was received with earnest praise and profound gratitude throughout Europe. France was for the moment disappointed, as the Russian Emperor's appeal seemed to be a serious blow to the hopes based on the continuance of the Franco-Russian alliance.

The Czar's appeal dates from August 24, 1898, when Count Muravieff, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, by his sovereign's order, handed to the foreign diplomatic representatives at the Russian capital a note asserting that the aim of all governments should be the preservation of peace and the reduction of the excessive armaments now burdening all the European nations. The document was first published on August 28th, the day of the unveiling of a monument in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars at Moscow, to Alexander II., "the Czar and Liberator." The next day the British and Foreign Arbitration Society adopted a similar appeal to the governments of the Six Great European Powers—Great Britain, Russia, Germany, France, Italy and Austria-Hungary.

A conference of the Great Powers of such a nature as suggested by the Russian Emperor was favored by many elements in the existing situation of Europe, there being at this time probably a nearer approach than ever before to a normal political adjustment on the Continent of Europe. Universal peace based on great military empires like that of the first Napoleon or the principles of absolutism as represented by the Holy Alliance, when there was no united Germany and no united Italy and when the oppressed masses were striving all over Continental Europe to cast off the fetters of the league of absolute crowned heads—uni-

**Count
Muravieff's
Docu-
ment.**

**Proposed
Peace
Confer-
ence.**

versal peace based on such conditions was obviously impossible. The questions of Napoleon's time and of the days of the Holy Alliance were now, fortunately, settled. The cause of national unity had triumphed in the main; and, though the cause of democracy had not yet won all that it aspired to, the advance of popular liberty and human rights had, at least, been recognized as an irresistible social force which everybody was disposed to see have its way through the ordinary course of liberal constitutional progress. Industrial progress and the necessities of the enfranchised workingman demanded relief from unproductive burdens and the organization of all the available forces of a great nation for the advancement of the comfort and happiness of the masses in general. Such were the forces operating for the success of the Czar's worthy project.

Obsta-
cles.

The obstacles in the way of general disarmament were, however, very great. All the nations, Russia included, would want a better guaranty of security than paper protocols and conventions have been in the past before they would be willing to beat all their swords into plowshares and all the spears into pruning hooks. Some of the obstacles were similar to those which caused the failure of the project of disarmament proposed by the French Emperor Napoleon III. in 1864. The Emperor of the French perceived that any plan of disarmament which was proposed would fail unless all sources of national irritation were removed, all deferred hopes reckoned with and satisfied, if possible. For that reason he proposed, as a preliminary condition, that the anti-nationalist arrangements of the Congress of Vienna in 1815, or such of them as still existed, should be revised—a rock upon which the entire scheme split. In 1898 the European situation was similar. A very noticeable feature in the European comments on the Czar's note was that nearly all rested upon the course of France. In the existing condition of things, disarmament would imply acceptance of the situation of Alsace-Lorraine, respecting which France is resolved to reserve her aspirations. The Trentino problem is regarded by Austria-Hungary as another unsettled question.

Great
Obstacle.

Another obstacle to disarmament was the fact that twenty years of "bloated armaments" built up a military caste in all European nations which surely would oppose strenuously any form of disarmament. The Dreyfus case furnished abundant evidence that this military caste in France wielded well-nigh irresistible power. Besides, no self-respecting nation would abandon permanently all reliance on military power for the ultimate defense of right and justice and the overthrow of deliberate wrong, until an international arbitration tribunal had been established and clothed with power to enforce its decrees. A tribunal of that character could not be looked for under existing conditions. The most that

could be expected was a court whose decrees would, simply by their moral force, act as an additional restraint upon nations. War might then become disreputable as a pursuit, and the great armaments could be reduced practically to domestic police forces. Moreover, that industrial struggle for ascendancy in the world's markets which is the essential foundation of all apprehension of international armed contests would go on as one feature of the struggle which antedates the history of mankind and constitutes the very life of the human race. But the proposed conference would have some important results, as it would disclose the elements causing the existing unfortunate condition of affairs, and would contribute immensely toward dispensing with them. If the weight of the burden of military establishments on Europe and the lack of cause for such establishments could be shown there would be a popular demand for the removal of the evil.

Toward the close of October, 1898, announcement was made of the acceptance of all the governments invited to participate in the conference, each government to send three delegates. The conference was thus to be a notable assemblage of diplomats, including representatives of all the European and American governments, as well as the governments of China, Japan and other Asiatic nations.

Preparations for the Conference.

No general disarmament of the Powers was seriously contemplated by any one. About all that could be expected was the devising of some means whereby the further increase of armaments could be checked or the masses relieved of the burdens of taxation, which were almost intolerable in many cases.

What was Expected.

One significant fact in relation to the proposed disarmament was that the Russian government itself had shown no disposition to decrease its military establishment since the Czar's proposal was made, but, on the contrary, had augmented its armament to a considerable extent, and the other Great Powers of Europe did the same thing.

Significant Fact.

Early in March, 1899, announcement was made that the international conference proposed by the Czar Nicholas II. for the diminution of the evils of militarism would convene at The Hague, Holland's capital, on May 18th, following. The proposals to be submitted for discussion were outlined in a circular issued on January 11, 1899, by Count Muravieff, Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, to the foreign diplomatic representatives in St. Petersburg.

Count Muravieff's Circular.

There was little confidence as to the possibility of any broad concurrence among the Powers on the lines proposed and under existing circumstances. The Russian circular evaded a condition essential to the success of any proposal to reduce armaments, namely, that all the Powers acquiesce in the *status quo* or a remodeling of the map of the world to the entire satisfaction of every Power. Besides, the Russian

Its Evasion.

project presumed that the Powers could place implicit confidence in each other; that every one of them would faithfully comply with all the provisions of any agreement that might be reached, and that a treaty or treaties could be so framed as to work satisfactorily all around—conditions unfulfilled and likely to remain so for a long time. In the interval since the Czar's proposal, in August, 1898, all the Powers continued to augment their armaments, Russia being most conspicuous in this respect. While Russia was constructing railways largely for military purposes she could not induce men to cease applying modern science to warfare, any more than she could persuade them to go back to the use of primitive weapons.

The
Delegates
to the
Conference.

On April 6, 1899, Secretary of State Hay announced the names of the American delegates to the conference, as follows: Andrew D. White, United States Ambassador to Germany; Stanford Newell, United States Minister to the Netherlands; Seth Low, President of Columbia University, New York city; Captain William Crozier, Ordnance Department, United States Army; Captain A. T. Mahan, United States Navy, retired; Frederick W. Holls, of New York, Secretary of the Delegation.

Assem-
bling
of the
Conference.

The conference assembled at The Hague, May 18, 1899, official delegates representing many nations being present. The official invitations were sent out from the Netherlands Foreign Office in the name of the young Queen Wilhelmina. The meetings were held in the *Huis ten Bosch*, or Palace in the Wood, in a delightful forest spot two miles from the center of The Hague, built by the Princess Amalia about the middle of the seventeenth century. The rooms of this famous structure are richly decorated and ornamented with seventeenth century painting and displays of Oriental art. The room assigned for the sessions of the conference was the great octagonal Orange Hall, whose walls were forty-five feet high and whose ceiling was dome-shaped. Twenty-six nations were represented at the conference.

Russia's
Astute-
ness.

Russian astuteness is generally credited with the invitation of so many minor powers, some of them practically destitute of army or navy. As the delegations from each nation cast one vote, and Persia or Bulgaria counted as heavily in the result as the worldwide British Empire, there would be alike small scope for diplomacy in combinations and large opportunity for outweighing the few Great Powers whose immense armies shake continents or whose swift vessels traverse all seas.

Heads
of
Delega-
tions.

It had been finally determined that each nation represented should have six delegates, but some sent only one. The total number in actual attendance was almost a hundred. The head of the United States delegation was Andrew D. White, United States Ambassador to Germany. The head of the British delegation was Sir Julian Pauncefote, British

Ambassador to the United States. The head of the Russian delegation was Baron de Staal, Russian Ambassador to Great Britain and President of the Conference. The head of the German delegation was Count von Munster, formerly German Ambassador to Great Britain and France successively. The head of the French delegation was M. Leon Bourgeois, formerly French Minister of Foreign Affairs and Prime Minister. The head of the Italian delegation was Count Constantin Nigra, who had been Italian Ambassador to France, Russia, Great Britain and Austria-Hungary. The head of the Austro-Hungarian delegation was Count Welser von Welserheimb, an ex-Ambassador. The head of the Spanish delegation was General Don Carlos O'Donnell, Duke of Tetuan, formerly Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Perhaps the greatest work of the Conference fell upon the experts in international law or in military and naval science, among whom were two of the lights of Europe on the law of nations—Professor Martens, of St. Petersburg, and Professor T. M. C. Asser, of Amsterdam; besides a great German legal light, the Baron von Stengel, professor of law in the University of Munich, who, in a recent pamphlet entitled “Der Ewige Friede,” declared that the Germans, least of all nations, should support the “fantastic aspirations of the friends of peace.” The pamphlet also gave vent to this gloomy prognostication: “The Americans, intoxicated with success, will strive more and more to become the dominant power and dictate their law to Europe * * * Shall Germany stand peacefully on one side?” The pamphlet questions whether it were “mere madness or crime when perpetual peace was preached to the German nation”; and it describes the Czar’s rescript as a “bombastically-composed document.” The Emperor William’s appointment of so peculiar a peace advocate to represent the German government in the conference led to distrust of the German Emperor’s sympathy with any peace movement.

Ger-
many's
Objec-
tions.

At the opening session of the conference, on May 18th, M. de Beaufort, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs of Holland, welcomed the delegates and moved that Baron de Staal, Russian delegate, be elected President of the Conference. That motion was adopted unanimously, and M. de Beaufort was then elected honorary President. At the second session, May 20th, the conference appointed three commissioners to deal with three groups of questions embracing eight points named in the preliminary circular from the Russian Foreign Office. The first commission was on Disarmament, the second on Laws of Warfare, the third on Mediation.

Opening
Proceed-
ings of
the Con-
ference.

Mediation and Arbitration were the subjects regarded by Great Britain and the United States as most important, from a practical point of view, of all the subjects under consideration by the conference. The

Media-
tion
and Arbi-
tration.

only force to be hoped for from this conference was moral force, there being no means to compel acquiescence in the decisions of the conference. Schemes of disarmament received little attention from the very beginning of the conference. In view of Russia's immense military preparations and her advance into new regions she would have had a great advantage over all other nations if land armaments were now to be checked, and her proposal for naval disarmament was unanimously rejected by the committee to which it was referred. The American delegates were instructed by their government to urge above everything else some one plan of international arbitration for the settlement of disputes between nations without a resort to force of arms. They were also instructed to urge exemption of private property at sea, except articles contraband of war, from an enemy's seizure at sea. They were likewise instructed to urge the extension of the humane rules and principles of the Red Cross to naval warfare. On the question of disarmament the United States held that its army and navy were already far smaller than any minimum which the conference could assign for the Great Powers of Europe. Great Britain was ready for any feasible project of universal arbitration and mediation.

Dum-Dum
Bullets
Prohibited.

Near the close of May the conference, by a vote of 18 to 3, prohibited the use of dum-dum bullets, the three Powers voting in the negative being Great Britain, Austria-Hungary and Italy. On June 22d the conference prohibited bullets which easily spread or flatten out in the human body, the United States and Great Britain being the only Powers voting in the negative. The use of the new and destructive explosives cast from balloons was forbidden for five years, and asphyxiating gases were prohibited from use in war.

British
and
American
Views.

The United States and Great Britain considered the question of Mediation and Arbitration the most important subject for discussion. The conference, which had rejected disarmament in the early sessions, was willing to give a respectful hearing to arbitration. At the end of May the drafting committee of the third commission adopted a plan of mediation and arbitration to be reported to the commission. The project of the American delegates provided for an international arbitration tribunal with one member from each sovereign state which signed the treaty, this tribunal to be selected by a majority of the highest court of each of the signatory powers, thus being a judicial body. Great Britain, Russia and Italy each submitted other schemes of arbitration, and all four schemes were reported to the commission, the American project being assigned the first place.

American
Proposal.

The American delegates also proposed a plan of mediation, providing that in case of a controversy between two nations each shall choose another nation to act as its "second," and the two seconds shall continue their efforts to end hostilities even after an appeal to arms.

The Russian project for arbitration was drawn up by Professor Martens and comprised forty-two articles. The American delegates made several objections to the Russian scheme and demanded optional instead of compulsory arbitration.

Russian
Arbitra-
tion Plan.

The British plan of arbitration provided for a permanent court, with a permanent central office and archives at Berne, Brussels or The Hague, and a permanent secretary who should summon the tribunal when litigants requested its intervention. Each nation which accepted this treaty was to submit to the other nation the names of two proper persons to be *ex-officio* members of the permanent tribunal. When requested to do so, the secretary at the central office was to furnish the list of members from which the litigants selected the number agreed upon, or they might select any other person. The nations which agreed to this treaty were to organize a permanent council of administration, consisting of five members and a secretary, who should have charge of all the financial and other interests of the tribunal and should make all necessary regulations.

British
Arbitra-
tion Plan.

The Italian project made no provision for any permanent tribunal, but made recourse to mediation or arbitration obligatory in some kinds of international controversies, and vigorously upheld the right of any neutral signatory powers to intervene with good offices, or offer of mediation, or proposals of arbitration.

Italian
Arbitra-
tion Plan.

About the middle of June it was rumored that the Emperor William II. of Germany had declared his opposition on principle to a permanent court of arbitration and to a compulsory arbitration of all disagreements, because this very principle was an invasion of the sacred sovereignty of individual nations. The conference temporarily suspended its labors on these subjects, because it was believed that the German delegates had been instructed by their government concerning these points when they were appointed. The French and other delegates were believed to entertain similar views. Nevertheless, a growing spirit of conciliation was exhibited by the favor shown to the British and other proposals for a permanent court. This made the obstructive attitude of the German delegation peculiar; and Count von Munster, the head of that delegation, sent two of its members to Berlin to confer with the Emperor William II. In the meantime Andrew D. White, the head of the American delegation, had suggested that a limited permanent board for non-compulsory arbitration be established at The Hague, this board to be under the ordinary diplomatic representatives of the powers. This suggestion apparently obviated Germany's objection, as the discussion was resumed under more favorable conditions, Germany's opposition being directed only against compulsory arbitration, the American delegates having entertained the same view from the beginning.

German
Emper-
or's
Opposi-
tion.

Proposed
Court of
Arbitra-
tion at
The
Hague.

On July 7th the sub-committee's scheme, styled "Draft of Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Conflicts," was reported to the third commission. The length and importance of this report caused an adjournment to July 17th, in order to give the respective governments time to give their final instructions to their respective delegations. This long document embraced fifty-six articles, and was based on Russia's proposals, with important modifications traceable to the British and American schemes. It provided for mediation from friendly nations before an appeal to arms and for a permanent court of arbitration, to be established at The Hague, consisting of four members of recognized ability to be designated by each signatory power, to serve for six years and to be eligible for reappointment, the contending powers to choose as many members from this court as they might agree upon, one possible choice being two members from each side, these four to choose a fifth; and a special arbitration tribunal to be constituted by these five members, the members of this tribunal to be chosen generally from those previously nominated, with no regard to any special subject. The central office of this permanent court, with its secretary, custodian of documents, etc., was to be at The Hague; this office, for all the business affairs and arrangements being under the control of a permanent council consisting of the diplomatic representatives of all the signatory powers at The Hague, with Holland's Minister of Foreign Affairs as its President. This scheme provided for an international commission of inquiry to verify or explain the subjects in controversy, thus facilitating an adjustment of the entire dispute, while leaving to the disputants a recourse to war or to arbitration. The arbitrators were to be clothed with all the powers and privileges of diplomatic functionaries, and the disputants who accepted arbitration were to refer disputed questions to the mediatory powers exclusively for settlement.

American
Proposal
as to
Private
Property.

Before the second commission, on July 6th, Andrew D. White, the head of the United States delegation, urgently and eloquently advocated the exemption of private property, except contraband of war, from capture by an enemy on the seas, just as such property is now exempted on land among civilized nations. A resolution was offered that the question concerning private property at sea be referred to a special international conference to be summoned in the future. Great Britain, France and Russia were opposed strenuously to any change in regard to this ancient and existing usage, and refused to vote on the question; but the resolution was agreed to unanimously by the votes of all the delegations except the three which refused to vote upon it. As the existing conference was not competent to issue a call for a conference on a

subject irrelevant to its assigned sphere, the vote on this resolution was simply a courteous expression of opinion by this conference.

The Second Peace Conference was held in the Hall of Knights at The Hague in 1907, the sessions lasting from June 15 to October 18. This Conference was the outcome of a suggestion of President Roosevelt. The Hague was selected at the suggestion of the Czar. The following conventions were agreed upon for the signature of the plenipotentiaries:

Second
Confer-
ence
and
Results.

1. The peaceful regulation of international conflicts.
2. Providing for an international prize court.
3. Regulating the rights and duties of neutrals on land.
4. Regulating the rights and duties of neutrals at sea.
5. Covering the laying of submarine mines.
6. The bombardment of towns from the sea.
7. The matter of the collection of contractual debts.
8. The transformation of merchantmen into warships.
9. The treatment of captured crews.
10. The inviolability of fishing boats.
11. The inviolability of the postal service.
12. The application of the Geneva Convention and the Red Cross to sea warfare, and
13. The laws and customs regulating land warfare.

On July 30, the foundation stone of the Carnegie Palace of Peace at The Hague was laid, with appropriate ceremonies, in the presence of a distinguished assemblage of diplomats and peace delegates.

SECTION XXX.—NINETEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

During the nineteenth century more had been done for the elevation of the human race and for the cause of civilization than in all other centuries combined. It had been a period of liberal political ideas, democratic and revolutionary, and social and political improvement of the masses. It had been an age of progress in education, discovery and invention.

During the nineteenth century governments had become more liberal throughout the civilized world. The cause of democracy had taken rapid strides. Every country of Europe at the end of it—with the exception of Russia and Turkey—had a constitution and a legislative assembly in which the people were represented. Modern constitutional liberty—the product of the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxon race—after

fully developing itself in England and North America, had spread over the continent of Europe. The shot fired at Lexington, April 19, 1775—"the shot that went round the world"—produced lasting results. A great republic was established in North America; the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars broke down the remains of mediæval feudalism in Europe; and the constitutional struggles of the nineteenth century sounded the death-knell of European absolutism. Among the grand strides which liberty had made during the nineteenth century may be mentioned the gradual enfranchisement of the masses in Great Britain, France and other European countries; the establishment of the French Republic; the liberalizing of Austria-Hungary—that former bulwark of European despotism; the emancipation of the masses in Spain, Italy, Prussia, Germany and other European countries; the emancipation of the Spanish American countries; the emancipation and enfranchisement of the colored population of the United States; the suppression of the African slave trade by the energetic action of Great Britain, and the long-desired unification of Italy and Germany, both of which countries were dissolved into a number of small states for ages.

**Material
Progress.**

Important inventions have contributed to man's happiness and comfort. Steam and electricity have been wonderful factors in modern civilization. Steam has been applied to innumerable uses. Steamboats ply the rivers, and steamships have taken the place of old sailing vessels, while railroads have been instrumental in developing human progress. Steam vessels and steam railway cars have made travel easy and rapid. In 1830 there were two hundred and six miles of railway; in 1881 there were two hundred and twenty-five thousand miles. The electro-magnetic telegraph, first used in 1844 between Baltimore and Washington, came into general use, so that in 1881 there were almost five hundred thousand miles of telegraph line in the world. The first Atlantic cable was laid successfully in 1866, and soon there were ocean cables in different parts of the world. Printing presses were brought to a great degree of perfection. The sewing machine—first patented by Elias Howe, of Massachusetts, in 1846—came into general use. The process of vulcanizing India-rubber was invented by Charles Good-year, of Connecticut. The chemical action of light was turned to account in the process of daguerreotyping, and likewise in photographing. There were numerous other inventions, including the telephone and the electric motor. Wonderful advances were made in the art of war. The large siege-guns and field-guns which were invented were capable of reducing city walls and fortresses of the greatest strength; while iron-clad war-vessels and gun-boats took the place of the old "wooden walls," and completely revolutionized the methods of modern naval warfare.

The world's material progress during the nineteenth century was shown at the great world's fairs which were held during the last half of the century, the most prominent of which were the ones at London in 1851; at New York in 1854; at Paris in 1855; at London in 1862; at Paris in 1867; at Vienna in 1873; at Philadelphia in 1876; at Paris in 1878 and 1889; at Madrid in 1892; at Chicago in 1893; at Antwerp, in Belgium, in 1894; and at Paris in 1900.

**World's
Fairs.**

Popular education made rapid strides during the nineteenth century. The clothing of the masses with political power in America and Europe has been the means of establishing public schools for the diffusion of intellectual enlightenment. In the United States education became very general among the masses, while in Prussia and other German states a compulsory school system was introduced. The enfranchisement of the masses in Great Britain, France and other European countries led to the establishment of compulsory systems of education in those countries. The newspaper press was a wonderful educator of the masses during the nineteenth century. In Great Britain and the United States the press was free; while in most countries of Europe newspapers were more or less under government censorship, and their liberty was somewhat restricted.

**Intellectual and
Educational
Progress.**

Commercial and diplomatic intercourse had also been greatly extended during the nineteenth century. The occupation of portions of Africa, Asia and Oceanica by European nations has been productive of great good to humanity, and has extended European civilization to every quarter of the globe. The occupation of Australia, South Africa, India, New Zealand, Borneo and various small islands in Oceanica by Great Britain has been a blessing to the cause of civilization, because it has tended to diffuse the language, institutions, and love of liberty of the Anglo-Saxon race. India, under British rule, has been vastly benefited. Railroads and telegraphs cross the country in every direction; the system of castes, and ancient superstitions and shocking religious customs, are rapidly giving way to more enlightened usages; and the despotism of the native princes has abated. The empires of China and Japan—the seats of the oldest civilizations yet existing—were opened to intercourse with the Western nations. Great Britain's opium war with China and the Treaty of Nankin, and the commercial treaty between the United States and Japan in 1854, contributed wonderfully toward opening the extreme East to the trade and the civilizing influences of Europe and America. The Suez Canal—projected by the Frenchman Ferdinand de Lesseps, and completed in 1869—shortened the route to India.

**Diffusion
of
European
Civilization.**

The rude island of Britain, which at Cæsar's invasion two thousand years ago was inhabited by savages, became the ruling center of the

Great
Power,
Extent
and Civil-
izing
Influence
of the
British
Empire.

grandest empire which has ever existed—an empire scattered over every portion of the globe, and on which the sun never sets. The three countries of England, Scotland and Ireland, together with the little country of Wales, embrace more than fifty million inhabitants; and London, the capital and metropolis of the British Empire, contained a population of seven millions. The entire United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with the various British possessions in Europe, Asia, Africa, America and Oceanica—the whole forming the British Empire—contained over four hundred million inhabitants, a greater number than those of any other empire, excepting China, which had one-fourth of the population of the globe within its limits. Great Britain exercised a commanding influence upon the destinies of the world, and has done more for the spread of liberty, civilization and Christianity than all other nations combined. The Anglo-Saxon race is superior to all other races, being especially noted for its enterprise and love of liberty; and the two great Anglo-Saxon nations of the world—Great Britain and the United States—are the leaders of modern civilization. The English language is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language, and its literature is more extensive than that of any other tongue. Great Britain became the leading commercial, maritime, manufacturing and colonial power of the world; her commerce extending to every clime, her fleets ruling the seas, her colonies being found in every quarter of the globe, and her manufactures being so various and extensive that she was called “The Workshop of the World.” Our own Webster has spoken of the British Empire as a power that “has dotted the surface of the globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat, following the sun, and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth daily, with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England.”

English
Progress
and
Liberty.

England is the only country where we can see how civilization and civil liberty developed step by step. Although her history, like that of every other nation, abounds in tales of cruelty, bloodshed and suffering, the drama enacted on her soil for the last fourteen centuries has been one grand stride in the direction of progress and in the development of everything tending to better the condition of the human race, socially, politically, intellectually and morally. All the principles of civil liberty incorporated into the political systems of Europe and America today are the grand results of the development of the free institutions won by degrees by the Anglo-Saxon race on British soil during the past fourteen hundred years.

Archæ-
ology and
Philol-
ogy.

England, favored by her delightful climate and by her extensive mineral products, as well as by the unparalleled enterprise and matchless vigor of her population, became the great manufacturing and

commercial center, and the seat of wealth, of the world. Not only by her insular situation, but by the natural inclination of her people, inherited from their Saxon ancestors, who were predisposed to rove the sea, has England become the great nation of sailors and colonizers of every quarter of the globe, and has thus been enabled to extend the benefits and the inestimable blessings of Anglo-Saxon civilization.

The English race is the strongest and most vigorous, mentally and physically, that has ever existed. England is not only our mother country in race and language, but also of our free institutions. By her teachings and by her example, she has been the great educator of nations in the principles of civil and political liberty. All European nations have within the last century modeled their governments after that of England, which, by the "Glorious Revolution of 1688," has for the last two centuries had a settled character as a free, constitutional government. The English language during the last century has rapidly spread, both among civilized and half-civilized races; and two-thirds of the newspaper circulation of the world—that great vehicle of modern intelligence—is now in that language.

England
as an
Educator.

Although a great part of our American population is from various other European nationalities, the great bulk of our people are the descendants of the English race planted on our soil nearly three centuries ago. Although an obvious patriotism requires Americans to inform themselves of the history of their own country first, we cannot understand ourselves, our civil, political and social institutions, our civilization or our language, without a knowledge of the great country from which we drew our own national existence—"Old Mother England." Our free institutions, which we so dearly prize—freedom of speech, freedom of the press, religious liberty, trial by jury, habeas corpus, bills of rights, equality before the law—are all of English origin, and were won during centuries of struggles by our English ancestors descended from the hardy Angles and Saxons who fourteen centuries ago left their homes in the German Fatherland and planted themselves on British soil to work out a glorious destiny for themselves, for their posterity and for all mankind.

English
Origin of
American
Institutions.

The very thing which is often condemned—England's greed and grasping ambition—has been the means, within the last two centuries, the period that her constitution has assumed a settled shape, of extending English civilization to every part of the globe. In India—that land so rich in the bounties of nature, but so long oppressed by caste and superstition—English rule has been an inestimable blessing to the native population. No longer are Hindoo widows burned upon the funeral pyre at the deaths of their husbands. No longer are Hindoo mothers permitted to throw their innocent babes into the Ganges as a

Benefits
of
British
Rule in
India.

religious sacrifice. No longer are religious devotees allowed to cast themselves beneath the wheels of the car of Juggernaut. All these horrible religious customs have given way before the march of English civilization. So it has been in every savage and barbarous quarter of the globe where the British flag has been planted.

Remarks
about
England.

Bismarck, Germany's great Chancellor, declared in the imperial legislature of the Fatherland that "England is centuries ahead of Germany in civilization." Equally as complimentary as these words of Prince Bismarck in the German Reichstag were the words of a prominent Austrian newspaper—the Vienna *Tagblatt*—which declared that "the last days of England's power would be the end of European liberty." It seemed that no intelligent well-wisher of mankind would desire the substitution of any other supremacy for British supremacy throughout the world, as British ascendancy and the interests of modern civilization and the development of constitutional liberty are inseparable.

British
Democ-
racy.

The British government is in many respects the most directly democratic that has ever existed, as the policy of the government must always be in accord with public sentiment. The British people, through the House of Commons, are the real rulers. The sovereign is a mere figurehead. The aristocracy, as represented by the House of Lords, though immensely wealthy, virtually possess no political power, as they must always give way before the House of Commons and popular sentiment. The Church of England, though a venerable institution, is also subordinate to the will of the nation.

British
Abolition
of
Slavery.

Great Britain has been the first nation of the world to abolish chattel slavery, and she has been the most active in the suppression of the African slave trade. Her abolition of slavery antedated that of the United States by thirty years, through the efforts of two great champions of freedom and friends of humanity. WILLIAM WILBERFORCE (1759–1833), as a member of Parliament, devoted his life to the cause of the abolition of the slave trade in the British colonies, which was effected in 1807, and to the abolition of slavery in the colonies, which was accomplished just before his death in 1833. THOMAS CLARKSON (1760–1846) was a worthy co-laborer with Wilberforce in the cause of abolition, out of Parliament. Great Britain has also led the world in another effort in the interest of humanity, as she prohibits the sale of intoxicants to the savage and barbarous races of the world both inside and outside of her worldwide dominions.

Progress
of Inven-
tion.

The progress of science and the useful arts during the Victorian Age was unexampled. Railroads crossed the kingdom in every direction. Steam vessels traversed every sea. The electric telegraph established instant communication between every part of the civilized world. The

steam printing-press facilitated the spread of intelligence, and increased the number of journals and periodicals of all classes circulated among the people.

Great geographical explorations in the Arctic regions were made during the nineteenth century by the English navigators, Ross, Parry, Sir John Franklin and McClure (the last of whom discovered a useless North-west passage in 1852); by the Americans, De Haven, Kane, Hayes, Hall, De Long, Greely and Peary, and, lastly, by the Norwegian, Fridjof Nansen. Since 1819 discoveries have been made in the Antarctic regions by English, French and American navigators; and Captain Ross, of the British navy, discovered a narrow strip of land in 1841, and named it *Victoria Land*; while Captain Wilkes, of the United States navy, discovered a narrow strip of land, seven-hundred miles long, and named it the *Antarctic Continent*. The interior of Africa was explored by the Englishmen, Mungo Park and Sir Samuel Baker; the American, Charles Chaille-Long; the Scotchman, Dr. David Livingstone; and the Englishman, Henry Morton Stanley. In Western Africa the British colony of Sierra Leone was founded in 1787 by English philanthropists, as a refuge for liberated slaves; and in 1821 the American Colonization Society founded the free negro Republic of Liberia, as a refuge for emancipated and refugee slaves, and for the civilization of Africa.

Explorations.

Science made rapid strides during the nineteenth century. Diligent scholars have been pursuing their researches into every branch with the most encouraging results. Bonaparte's conquest of Egypt in 1798 was a great benefit to modern civilization; and since that period learned European Egyptologists, like the Frenchman Champollion and others, brought to light many hitherto unknown facts in ancient Egyptian history, by deciphering the hieroglyphics on the monumental ruins of Egypt. The excavation of ancient ruins in Asia Minor, and in the regions of the Euphrates and the Tigris, by the Englishmen Layard, Rawlinson and others, have given us new light on the ancient world—especially Chaldæa, Assyria and Babylon. Philology has been advanced by the German scholars, Grimm brothers, Bopp and Schlegel, and Professor Max Muller of Oxford, England. Lord Rayleigh discovered argon, a constituent of air, in 1895, and Professor Roentgen of Germany discovered the X-ray, in 1896.

Scientific Discoveries.

ROBERT FULTON (1765-1815)—an American, born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania—invented the steamboat; the first successful voyage being made on the Hudson in 1807.

SIR MARK ISAMBARD BRUNEL (1769-1849)—a celebrated English engineer—projected the *Thames tunnel*; begun in 1826 and finished in 1843.

Great Inventors and Their Inventions.

GEORGE STEPHENSON (1781-1848)—an English engineer—invented the *locomotive* engine in 1814.

DAGUERRE (1789-1851), a Frenchman, invented the *daguerreotype*.

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE (1791-1871)—an American, born in Massachusetts—invented the *electro-magnetic telegraph*; the first public use of which was made between Washington and Baltimore in 1844, in dispatching an account of the proceedings of the convention which nominated James K. Polk for the Presidency of the United States.

CYRUS W. FIELD (1819-1892), of New York, projected the *Atlantic Cable*, which was successfully laid in the summer of 1866.

ELIAS HOWE (1819-1867)—a native of Massachusetts—invented the *sewing machine*, for which he obtained a patent in 1846.

THOMAS A. EDISON (born 1847)—an American—is famous for his numerous inventions of electrical instruments, and for his discoveries and experiments in *electric light*. Edison is one of the inventors of the telephone. Another of his inventions is the phonograph, or speaking machine.

CAPTAIN JOHN ERICSSON (1803-1889)—a Swedish-American—invented the *propeller* for steam war-vessels, and also the iron-clad *Monitor*. The first combat between iron-clad vessels was between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, in the American civil war.

The Four
Great
Natural-
ists.

ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT (1769-1859)—the greatest of German naturalists—traveled over both continents, and in his *Kosmos* gave an account of the physical phenomena of the universe.

CUVIER (1769-1832)—a Swiss, but who lived most of his life in Paris—was a renowned naturalist, whose chief works are *The Animal Kingdom* and *Discourses on the Revolutions of the Surface of the Globe*. He was Minister of Education under Napoleon I.

LOUIS J. R. AGASSIZ (1807-1873)—a Swiss by birth, but who spent the last twenty-five years of his life in the United States—was an eminent naturalist, and author of *Poissons Fossiles*, *Contributions to the Natural History of the United States*, and *Methods of Study in Natural History*.

HAECKEL (1834-1919) ranks as a great German naturalist and evolutionist.

Two
Great
English
Natural-
ists.

CHARLES DARWIN (1809-1882)—a renowned English naturalist and the leading advocate of the "Darwinian theory," or the theory of evolution—wrote *The Origin of Species*, *The Descent of Man*, *Variations of Animals and Plants*, *Expression in Man and Animals*, and other works. His grandfather, Erasmus Darwin, was a naturalist.

THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY (1825-1895)—a great English naturalist—wrote *Man's Place in Nature*, *Comparative Anatomy*, *Protoplasm*, *Lay Sermons*, and other works.

SIR HUMPHREY DAVY (1778-1829)—a celebrated English chemist and natural philosopher—discovered many scientific facts and principles, and invented the safety-lamp for miners.

Four
Great
English
and
Scotch
Chemists
and Phys-
icists.

SIR DAVID BREWSTER (1781-1868)—an illustrious Scotch scientist, and editor of the *Edinburgh Encyclopedia*—was celebrated for his discoveries in optics, and wrote *Letters on Natural Magic*, *Life of Newton*, *Life of Kepler*, *Life of Galileo*, etc.

MICHAEL FARADAY (1791-1869)—an eminent English chemist and natural philosopher—made many important discoveries in magnetic electricity and light, and was a famous lecturer on scientific subjects.

JOHN TYNDALL (1820-1893)—a great English natural philosopher and lecturer on scientific subjects—wrote *Heat Considered as a Mode of Motion*, *Glaciers of the Alps*, *On Sound*, and other noted scientific works.

WILLIAM WHEWELL (1794-1866) was a noted English scientist and philosopher.

SIR JOHN LUBBOCK (1834-1913) was a noted English archæologist, naturalist and politician.

OERSTED (1777-1851)—a Dane—discovered the identity of magnetism and electricity.

Other
Chemists
and Phys-
icists.

LIEBIG (1803-1873)—a great German chemist and professor at Munich—wrote considerably on the chemistry of agriculture and physiology.

LOUIS PASTEUR (1822-1895) was a renowned French chemist and microscopist, who made many discoveries in the chemistry of agriculture and discovered remedies for hydrophobia.

RUDOLF VIRCHOW (1821-1902) was an eminent German anatomist, physiologist and anthropologist.

German
Physi-
cians.

ROBERT KOCH (1843-1910) is a famous German physician and bacteriologist, who discovered the bacilli of tuberculosis.

HUGH MILLER (1802-1856)—a renowned Scotch geologist—wrote *Old Red Sandstone*, *Footprints of the Creator*, *Testimony of the Rocks*, *My Schools and Schoolmasters*, etc.

Scotch
Geolo-
gists.

SIR CHARLES LYELL (1797-1875)—an eminent Scotch geologist—wrote *Elements of Geology*, *Antiquity of Man*, *Travels in North America*, etc.

ARAGO (1786-1852) was a French astronomer.

LEVERRIER (1811-1877)—a distinguished French astronomer—aided in discovering the planet Neptune in 1846.

Four
Great
Astron-
omers.

ORMSBY MACKNIGHT MITCHELL (1810-1862) was a famous American astronomer, and a general on the National side in the Civil War.

RICHARD ANTHONY PROCTOR (1837-1888) ranked as a great English astronomer.

- Two Great German Physicians. DR. SAMUEL HAHNEMANN (1755-1843)—a German physician—originated homeopathy.
- German Metaphysicians and Philosophers. DR. FRANZ JOSEF GALL (1758-1828) and DR. JOHANN GASPAR SPURZHEIM (1776-1832)—German physicians—founded phrenology.
- HEGEL (1770-1831)—a German—founder of a new school of philosophy.
- FICHTE (1762-1814)—German philosopher—was the ideal pantheist.
- SCHELLING (1775-1854) was the last of the four great German philosophers—Kant, Hegel, Fichte, Schelling.
- SCHLEIERMACHER (1768-1834)—a German divine and philosopher—was a pantheist.
- SCHOPENHAUER (1788-1860)—a German pessimistic philosopher—was called the “European Buddhist.”
- FEUERBACH (1804-1872) was a German metaphysician.
- STRAUSS (1808-1874) was a German philosopher and Rationalist divine.
- HARTMANN (1840-1906) was a noted German philosopher.
- French Philosophers. COMTE (1798-1857)—a renowned French philosopher—was the author of *Positive Philosophy*.
- COUSIN (1792-1867) was a famous French metaphysician and philosopher.
- Scotch Philosophers. DUGALD STEWART (1753-1828)—a great Scotch mental and moral philosopher—was Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.
- SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON (1788-1856)—a great Scotch metaphysician and logician, and Professor in the University of Edinburgh—wrote works on mental philosophy and logic.
- English Political Economists. THOMAS ROBERT MALTHUS (1766-1834)—an English political economist—maintained that wars, famines and pestilence are necessary to prevent population from increasing too rapidly.
- DAVID RICARDO (1772-1823)—a London banker and a political economist—was distinguished mainly for his writings on financial subjects and for his advocacy of the gold standard.
- JAMES MILL (1795-1843)—English political economist—wrote a *History of India*.
- English Political Philosophers. JEREMY BENTHAM (1747-1832)—a great English political philosopher and judicial reformer—wrote *Utilitarianism* and many works on political reform.
- JOHN STUART MILL (1806-1873)—a great English philosopher and thinker, son of James Mill—wrote *Political Economy*, *Essay on Liberty*, *System of Logic*, etc.
- HENRY THOMAS BUCKLE (1822-1862), Englishman, wrote *History of Civilization*.

HERBERT SPENCER (1820-1903)—a distinguished English philosopher—wrote *Social Statics*, *Principles of Psychology*, *Education*, *First Principles of Sociology*, and other works.

SIR WALTER SCOTT (1771-1832)—a great Scotch poet and novelist—wrote many poems and the *Waverley* novels, also a *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*.

Eight
Great
British
Poets.

ROBERT SOUTHEY (1774-1843)—English poet, one of the three Lake Poets, and poet-laureate for a time—wrote *Life of Nelson*, *Life of Cowper*, and *Life of Wesley*.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH (1770-1850)—another of the Lake Poets, and poet-laureate after Southey—wrote *The Excursion*, *The White Doe of Rylstone*, etc.

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE (1772-1834)—the third of the Lake Poets—wrote *The Ancient Mariner* and *Christobal*, and prose works.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY (1792-1822)—an English dramatic and lyric poet—was drowned in the Bay of Spezzia.

LORD BYRON (1788-1824)—one of the most famous of English poets—was the author of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* and other poems; and died at Missolonghi, in Greece, at the age of thirty-six, during the Greek War of Independence.

THOMAS MOORE (1779-1852)—Ireland's national poet—was famous for his lyrics.

THOMAS CAMPBELL (1777-1844)—a famous Scotch poet—was the author of *Pleasures of Hope*, *Ye Mariners of England*, *Gertrude of Wyoming*, *Hohenlinden*, etc.

Other English poets were JOHN KEATS (1796-1820), who died at the age of twenty-four; JAMES SHERIDAN KNOWLES (1784-1862), author of *William Tell*, *Virginius* and other dramas; THOMAS HOOD (1798-1845), author of *The Bridge of Sighs* and *Song of the Shirt*; SAMUEL ROGERS (1763-1855), a London banker; ROBERT MONTGOMERY (1807-1855), and the REV. GEORGE CRABBE (1754-1832). Among Scotch poets were JAMES MONTGOMERY (1771-1854); JAMES HOGG (1772-1835); and ROBERT POLLOK (1799-1827). Female poets were MRS. FELICIA DOROTHEA HEMANS (1794-1835); MISS JOANNA BAILLIE (1762-1851); MISS LETITIA E. LANDON (1802-1838); and MISS ELIZA COOK (1817-1889).

Other
British
Poets.

THOMAS DE QUINCEY (1785-1859)—"the English Opium Eater"—was a brilliant writer, and wrote *Confessions of an English Opium Eater*.

Three
Great
British
Prose
Writers

LORD BROUGHAM (1778-1868)—a great scholar, orator, statesman, jurist and reviewer—was one of the great lights of the nineteenth century, was born at Edinburgh, and was of English and Scotch descent, being noted also as a great political reformer.

THOMAS CHALMERS (1780-1847)—a great Scotch divine—was the leader of the *Free Church of Scotland*, and Professor of Theology in the University of Edinburgh.

British Novelists, Essayists, Etc. MRS. ANNA LETITIA BARBAULD (1743-1825) wrote for children. The COUNTESS D'ARBLAY (1752-1840), JANE AUSTEN (1775-1817), MARIA EDGEWORTH (1767-1849), MISS MARY RUSSELL MITFORD (1786-1855) and CAPTAIN FREDERICK MARRYAT (1792-1848) were novelists. CHARLES LAMB (1775-1834), SIR JAMES MACKINTOSH (1765-1832) and WILLIAM HAZLITT (1778-1830) were great essayists. LORD JEFFREY (1773-1850) and SYDNEY SMITH (1771-1845) were great contributors to the *Edinburgh Review*. DOUGLAS JERROLD (1803-1857) was an English humorous writer.

English Historians. Among the historians were HENRY HALLAM (1778-1859), author of *Constitutional History of England*, *History of the Middle Ages*, and *Literature of Europe*; JOHN LINGARD (1771-1851), author of a Roman Catholic *History of England*; THOMAS ARNOLD of Rugby (1795-1842), author of *History of Rome* and *Lectures on Modern History*; and WILLIAM MITFORD (1744-1827), author of a *History of Greece*.

English Poets of the Victorian Age. ALFRED TENNYSON (1809-1892)—poet-laureate of England during the Victorian Age—was the author of *The Princess*, *In Memoriam*, *Idyls of the King*, *May Queen*, *Enoch Arden*, and other poems. Other eminent English poets have been ROBERT BROWNING (1812-1889); his wife, ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING (1807-1861); MISS JEAN INGELOW (1830-1897); WILLIAM MORRIS (1834-1896); ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE (1837-1909); CHARLES MACKAY (1814-1889); GERALD MASSEY (1828-1907); BRYAN WALLER PROCTOR (1790-1874); and his daughter, ADELAIDE A. PROCTOR (1825-1864); SIR EDWIN ARNOLD (1832-1904), author of *Light of Asia*, *Light of the World*, *Prince of India*, etc., and RUDYARD KIPLING (born 1865), whose birthplace was Bombay, in India.

Four Great English Novelists of the Victorian Age. CHARLES DICKENS (1812-1870)—the most eminent and popular of English novelists—wrote *Nicholas Nickleby*, *David Copperfield*, *Pickwick Papers*, and numerous other novels.

WILLIAM MAKEPEICE THACKERAY (1811-1862)—a great English novelist—wrote *Vanity Fair*, *Pendennis*, *Henry Esmond*, *The Virginians*, *The Newcomes*, etc.

SIR EDWARD GEORGE BULWER-LYTTON (1805-1873)—likewise a great English novelist—wrote *Pelham*, *Eugene Aram*, *The Last Days of Pompeii*, *Riceni*, and other novels; also several dramas, as *Richelieu* and *The Lady of Lyons*.

GEORGE ELIOT (1820-1880)—Mrs. Marian Cross (formerly Evans), the greatest English female novelist—wrote *Adam Bede*, *Ro-mola*, *Silas Marner*, *Middlemarch*, *Daniel Deronda*, and other novels.

BENJAMIN DISRAELI, LORD BEACONSFIELD (1805-1881)—the great Tory statesman, of Hebrew descent—wrote *Vivian Grey*, *Coningsby*, etc. Other famous novelists were WILLIAM WILKIE COLLINS (1824-1889); REV. CHARLES KINGSLEY (1819-1875); CHARLES READE (1814-1884); ANTHONY TROLLOPE (1815-1882); SIR WALTER BESANT (1856-1901); MRS. OLIPHANT (1828-1897); and THOMAS HUGHES (1823-1896), member of Parliament, and author of *School Days at Rugby* and *Tom Brown at Oxford*. CHARLOTTE BRONTE (1816-1855) wrote *Jane Eyre*, *Shirley*, and *Villette*. OSCAR FINGALL O'FLAHERTIE WILLS WILDE (1856-1900) was a poet, dramatist and novelist. THOMAS HENRY HALL CAINE (born 1853) and DR. ARTHUR CONAN DOYLE (born 1859) rank as novelists.

THOMAS BABINGTON MACAULAY (1800-1859)—English historian—was a native of England, but of Scotch descent; and wrote a *History of England* and other works, such as *Essays*, *Lays of Ancient Rome*, etc.

Other historians of the Victorian Age have been GEORGE GROTE (1794-1871), a London banker, author of a *History of Greece*; CONNOP THIRLWALL (1797-1875), also author of a *History of Greece*; SIR ARCHIBALD ALISON (1792-1867), author of a *History of Europe*; JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE (1818-1894), author of *History of England*; HENRY HART MILMAN (1791-1868), author of *History of Christianity*, *History of Latin Christianity*, etc.; REV. CHARLES MERIVALE (1808-1874), author of *History of the Romans*, *Conversion of the Roman Empire*, *Conversion of the Northern Nations*, etc.; SIR HENRY RAWLINSON (1810-1895), the great Assyriologist; GEORGE RAWLINSON, brother of Sir Henry Rawlinson (1815-1902), author of *Ancient Monarchies*; ALEXANDER WILLIAM KINLAKE (1802-1891), author of *History of the Invasion of the Crimea*; MISS AGNES STRICKLAND (1806-1874), author of *Queens of England*, etc.; JUSTIN MC CARTHY (1830-1912), an Irish M. P., wrote *History of Our Own Times*; WILLIAM EDWARD HARTPOLE LECKY (1838-1903) wrote *History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe*, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century* and many other works; EDWARD AUGUSTUS FREEMAN (1823-1892), author of *History of the Norman Conquest*, *Growth of the English Constitution*, *William Rufus*, *History of the Conquests of the Saracens*, *the Ottoman Power in Europe* and many other historical works; WILLIAM STUBBS (1825-1901) wrote *The Constitutional History of England*, *The Early Plantagenets*, *Epochs of Modern History* and other works; CHARLES KNIGHT (1791-1873), author of *Popular History of England*; and JOHN RICHARD GREEN (1837-1883), author of *History of the English People*, *Short History of the English People*, *The Making of England*, etc. JAMES BRYCE (1838-1922) wrote *Holy Roman Empire* and *American Commonwealth*.

Other
English
Novelists
of the
Victorian
Age.

English
Historians
of the
Victorian
Age.

Other
Great
English
Writers
of the
Victorian
Age.

THOMAS CARLYLE (1795–1881)—a native of Scotland, but who lived most of his life in London—was one of the greatest of English writers; and his great works were *The French Revolution*, *Life of Frederick the Great*, *Hero Worship*, *Life of Cromwell*, *Sartor Resartus* and numerous *Essays*.

JOUN RUSKIN (1819–1900)—English art critic—wrote *Modern Painters*, *Seven Lamps of Architecture*, *Stones of Venice*, etc.

MAX MULLER (1823–1900)—a native of Germany, but Professor of Philology in Oxford University—wrote *Science of Language*, *Chips from a German Workshop*, etc.

REV. CHARLES H. SPURGEON (1834–1892)—the most popular preacher in England—wrote several volumes of sermons.

Other English writers have been HARRIET MARTINEAU (1802–1876); her brother JAMES MARTINEAU (1805–1900), a Unitarian divine; MATTHEW ARNOLD (1822–1888), son of the historian, Thomas Arnold of Rugby; CANON FREDERICK WILLIAM FARRAR (1831–1903); and the RIGHT HON. WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE (1809–1898)—the great Liberal statesman—who wrote *Juventus Mundi*, *Homeric Studies*.

JOSEPH RODMAN DRAKE (1795–1820), of Connecticut—who died at twenty-five—was the author of *The American Flag*.

FITZ-GREENE HALLECK (1795–1867), of Connecticut—Drake's intimate friend—was the author of *Marco Bozzaris*.

JOHN HOWARD PAYNE (1792–1852), of New York—a noted dramatist—wrote *Home, Sweet Home*.

EDGAR ALLAN POE (1809–1849), died in Baltimore—a brilliant but erratic genius—was the author of *The Raven* and *The Bells*.

JUDGE JOSEPH HOPKINSON (1770–1843), of New Jersey, wrote *Hail Columbia*.

FRANCIS SCOTT KEY (1779–1843)—a young Baltimore lawyer—wrote *The Star Spangled Banner*.

DR. DAVID RAMSAY (1749–1815)—an American historian and a physician—born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, but who lived most of his life in South Carolina—wrote *History of South Carolina*, *History of the United States*, *Universal History*, *Life of Washington*.

WILLIAM WIRT (1772–1834), was a great Virginia lawyer, and author of *The British Spy* and *Life of Patrick Henry*.

JOHN MARSHALL (1775–1835)—also a great Virginia lawyer and Chief Justice of the United States—wrote a *Life of Washington*.

CHARLES BROCKDEN BROWN (1771–1810), of Philadelphia, was a distinguished novelist.

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON (1780–1851)—a native of Louisiana and a great American ornithologist—was the author of works entitled *Birds of America* and *Quadrupeds of America*.

Earlier
American
Poets.

Earlier
American
Histo-
rians,
Biogra-
phers,
Etc.

Great
American
Ornithol-
ogists.

ALEXANDER WILSON (1766–1813)—a great Scotch American ornithologist—wrote *American Ornithology*.

JUDGE JAMES KENT (1763–1847), of New York, wrote *Commentaries on American Law*.

Two
American
Writers
on Law.

JUDGE JOSEPH STORY (1779–1845), of Massachusetts, wrote *Commentary on the Constitution of the United States*, and other legal works.

TIMOTHY DWIGHT (1752–1817)—President of Yale College—was a great divine and writer.

Great
American
Divines.

WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING (1780–1842), of Massachusetts, was a great Unitarian divine.

NOAH WEBSTER (1758–1843), of Massachusetts, compiled an English Dictionary.

Great
American
Lexicog-
raphers.

JOSEPH WORCESTER (1784–1865), of Massachusetts, also compiled an English Dictionary.

DANIEL WEBSTER (1782–1852), of Massachusetts—the greatest of American orators—was one of the three great statesmen who for a quarter of a century adorned the United States Senate with their eloquence and greatness; the other two being HENRY CLAY, of Kentucky, (1777–1852), and JOHN C. CALHOUN, of South Carolina (1782–1850).

Great
American
Orators.

EDWARD EVERETT (1794–1865), of Massachusetts, was the most polished of American orators, and a great scholar and statesman.

CHARLES SUMNER (1811–1874), was a United States Senator from Massachusetts, and a great scholar, statesman and champion of the rights of the colored race; whose fame was built on great orations, such as *The True Grandeur of Nations*, *The Barbarism of Slavery*, etc.

HENRY WARD BEECHER (1813–1887)—the greatest of American pulpit orators and Congregational pastor in Brooklyn, and son of the famous Rev. Lyman Beecher (1775–1863)—was the author of several volumes of sermons and other works.

Great
American
Preach-
ers.

THOMAS DE WITT TALMAGE (1832–1902), was a popular Presbyterian preacher of Brooklyn, and an author.

WASHINGTON IRVING (1783–1859), of New York—the most popular American prose writer—wrote *Knickerbocker*, *Bracebridge Hall*, *The Sketch-Book*, *Life of Goldsmith*, *Life of Columbus*, *Life of Washington*, *the Alhambra*, *Conquest of Granada*, etc.

Four
Great
American
Novelists

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER (1789–1851), of Cooperstown, New York, wrote thirty-three novels.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE (1804–1864), of Concord, Massachusetts, wrote *Scarlet Letter*, *Marble Faun*, and other novels.

MRS. HARRIET BEECHER STOWE (1812–1896)—sister of the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and the greatest American female novelist—wrote *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and other novels.

Later
American
Poets.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT (1794-1878), born in Massachusetts—editor of the *New York Evening Post*—was the greatest of American poets; and his first poem, *Thanatopsis*, he wrote at the age of eighteen, and his last, *The Flood of Years*, at the age of eighty-two.

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW (1807-1882)—of Cambridge, Massachusetts, and the most popular of American poets—wrote *Evangeline* and many other popular poems.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER (1808-1892), of Massachusetts—the Quaker poet—was famous for his anti-slavery poems.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL (1819-1891)—of Cambridge, Massachusetts—was a great poet, essayist and critic.

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES (1809-1894)—of Cambridge, Massachusetts—was a noted poet and prose writer.

BAYARD TAYLOR (1825-1878), born in Chester county, Pennsylvania—great traveler, poet and prose writer—translated Goethe's *Faust*, and composed and recited the National Ode for the 4th of July, 1876, at Philadelphia.

THOMAS BUCHANAN READ (1822-1872), born in Chester County, Pennsylvania—poet and artist—was the author of *Sheridan's Ride* and other poems.

JOHN GODFREY SAXE (1816-1887), born in Vermont, a resident of Brooklyn, was a humorous poet.

ALICE and PHOEBE CARY (1820-1871 and 1825-1871)—of New York City, born near Cincinnati—were sisters and the greatest American female poets.

PAUL HAMILTON HAYNE (1845-1886), of South Carolina, was "the Poet of the South."

Other poets have been GEORGE H. BOKER, of Philadelphia (1824-1890); EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN, a New York banker (1833-1908); THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH, a native of Portsmouth, New Hampshire (1836-1907), lyric poet and novelist; THOMAS DUNN ENGLISH (1819-1902), poet and novelist, author of *Ben Bolt*; WALTER WHITMAN (1819-1892), a very fine poet; J. G. HOLLAND, a poet and novelist (1819-1883), editor of *Scribner's Monthly*; and FRANCIS BRETHARTE (1837-1902), and JOAQUIN MILLER (1841-1913), both residents of New York city and both having led adventurous lives among the miners in California. Among the latest poets are EDWIN MARKHAM (born 1852), author of *The Man with the Hoe*, and ELLA WHEELER WILCOX (1855-1919).

WILLIAM HICKLING PRESCOTT (1796-1859), of Massachusetts—grandson of Colonel William Prescott, of Bunker Hill fame—was the author of *Ferdinand and Isabella*, *Conquest of Mexico*, *Conquest of Peru*, *Robertson's Charles V.*, *Philip II*, and *Miscellanies*.

Great
American
Histo-
rians.





GEORGE BANCROFT (1800–1891)—born at Worcester, Massachusetts—was the author of a standard *History of the United States*.

JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY (1814–1877), of Massachusetts, was the author of *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, *History of the United Netherlands*, and *John of Barneveldt*.

RICHARD HILDRETH (1807–1865), of Massachusetts, was the author of a *History of the United States*.

Other historians have been FRANCIS PARKMAN (1823–1893), of Massachusetts, author of *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, *The Jesuits in America*, *The Discovery of the Great West*, *The Pioneers of France in the New World*; BENSON JOHN LOSSING (1813–1891), of Poughkeepsie, New York, author of *Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution*, *History of the War of 1812*, *Pictorial History of the Civil War*; and REV. JOHN S. C. ABBOTT (1805–1877), of Massachusetts, author of *History of Napoleon Bonaparte*, *History of Napoleon III.*, *History of the Civil War in America*, and other works. HORACE GREELEY (1811–1872), born in New Hampshire—founder and editor of *The New York Tribune*, and the prince of journalists—wrote *The American Conflict*, *Recollections of a Busy Life*, etc. HENRY WILSON (1812–1875), of Massachusetts—Vice President of the United States from 1873 to 1875—wrote a *History of the Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America*. HUBERT HOWE BANCROFT (born 1832), wrote a history of the Pacific coast of North America in 39 volumes. JOHN FISKE (1842–1901), wrote a number of works on American history and on evolution. The most noted biographers have been JARED SPARKS (1794–1866), editor of *American Biography*, *Life of Washington*, *Life of Franklin*, etc.; and JAMES PARTON (1822–1891), author of *Life of Jackson*, *Life of Franklin*, *Life of Jefferson*, *Famous Americans*, *People's Book of Biography*, etc.

Other
American
Histo-
rians
and Biog-
raphers.

THEODORE PARKER (1810–1860)—a Rationalist divine of Boston—was a great thinker and vigorous writer.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON (1803–1882), of Massachusetts—"the Sage of Concord" and the most profound and original of American thinkers, and head of the "transcendental school of philosophy"—was the author of *English Traits*, *Representative Men*, and several volumes of *Essays*.

American
Philo-
sophical
and
Scientific
Writers.

HENRY DAVID THOREAU (1817–1862), a noted author and transcendentalist, a friend of Emerson, who lived much retired from the world.

Among scientific writers were JOHN W. DRAPER (1811–1881)—Professor of Chemistry in the University of New York, and born in England—author of *History of the Conflict between Science and Religion*, *History of the Intellectual Development of Europe*, *History of*

the American Civil War, and many scientific works; HON. GEORGE PERKINS MARSH (1801-1882), and PROF. WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY (1827-1894), of Yale College, authors of works on language; JAMES MCCOSH (1811-1894), of Princeton College, a meta-physician, who came to America from Scotland in 1868; FRANCIS WAYLAND (1796-1865), of Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island, author of *Moral Science, Intellectual Philosophy* and *Political Economy*; and HORACE MANN (1796-1859), the great Massachusetts educator.

American
Humor-
ists.

The leading American humorists have been MRS. PARTINGTON—BENJAMIN PENHALLOW SHILLABER (1814-1890); JOSH BILLINGS—HENRY WHEELER SHAW (1818-1885); ARTEMUS WARD—CHARLES FARRAR BROWNE (1834-1867); PETROLEUM VESUVIUS NASBY—DAVID ROSS LOCKE (1833-1888); and MARK TWAIN—SAMUEL LANGHORNE CLEMENS (1835-1910).

Other
American
Authors.

Other American authors have been JULIAN HAWTHORNE (born 1846), novelist and son of Nathaniel Hawthorne; WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS (born 1837), novelist and poet; RICHARD GRANT WHITE (1822-1885), essayist and critic; CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER (1829-1900), a noted author, essayist and journalist; EDWARD EGGLESTON (1837-1902), novelist, story writer and historian, author of *The Hoosier Schoolmaster*; THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON (1823-1902), a noted author, essayist and historian; JAMES FREEMAN CLARKE (1810-1888), author, theologian and Unitarian clergyman; and EDWARD EVERETT HALE (1822-1909), author, editor and Unitarian clergyman. JACK LONDON (1876-1916) is a Socialist novelist.

French
Egypt-
ologists.

CHAMPOLLION (1791-1832) was a great French Egyptologist.

MARIETTE (1821-1881) was a later French Egyptologist.

French
Poets.

CHATEAUBRIAND (1768-1848)—a famous French poet—wrote *Genius of Christianity*.

BERANGER (1780-1857) was a celebrated French lyric poet.

LAMARTINE (1790-1869) was a French poet and prose writer, orator and politician.

French
Histo-
rians.

SISMONDE (1773-1842)—a famous French historian and political economist, a Swiss by birth—wrote *History of the Italian Republics* and *History of France*.

GUIZOT (1787-1875)—a famous French statesman and historian—wrote *History of Civilization in Europe* and other works.

LOUIS ADOLPHE THIERS (1797-1877)—a great French statesman and historian—was the author of *The French Revolution* and *The Consulate and the Empire*.

The brothers THIERRY (1795-1856 and 1797-1873), French historians, wrote respectively of the *Norman Conquest* and *Gauls*.



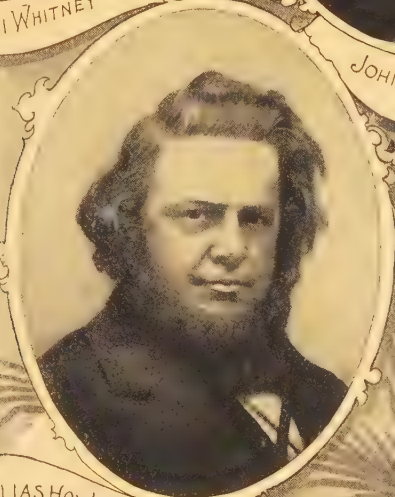
ELI WHITNEY



JOHN ERICSSON



ROBERT FULTON



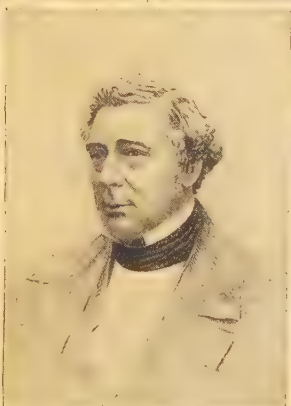
ELIASHOWE



CYRUS H. MCCORMICK



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE



ROBERT STEPHENSON



WILLIAM MARCONI

GREAT INVENTORS



AUTHORS OF THE UNITED STATES

From the Painting by Thomas Hicks

1 Mrs. Mowatt Ritchie
2 Prentice
3 G. W. Kendall
4 Kennedy
5 Alice Cary
6 Holmes
7 Willis
8 Miss Sedgwick
9 Mrs. Sigourney
10 Mrs. Southworth
11 Mitchell

12 Longfellow
13 Morris
14 Poe
15 Tuckerman
16 Hawthorne
17 Bryant
18 Simms
19 Halleck
20 P. Pendleton Cooke
21 Hoffman
22 Cooper

23 Prescott
24 Bancroft
25 Irving
26 Parké Godwin
27 R. H. Dana
28 Motley
29 Margaret Fuller (Ossoli)
30 Beecher
31 Curtis
32 Channing
33 Emerson

34 Mrs. Stowe
35 Lowell
36 Mrs. Kirkland
37 Whittier
38 Boker
39 Bayard Taylor
40 Stoddard
41 Saxe
42 Cozzens
43 Gallagher
44 Mrs. Amelia Welby

MIGNET (1796–1884), Frenchman, wrote a *History of the French Revolution*.

MICHELET (1798–1874), Frenchman, wrote *History of France*, etc.

HENRI MARTIN (1810–1883)—an eminent French historian—wrote *History of France* and other works.

DE TOCQUEVILLE (1805–1856)—a French statesman and author—wrote *Democracy in America* and other works.

Other
French
Writers.

ERNEST RENAN (1823–1892), was a French critic and orientalist, author of *Life of Jesus* and *Saint Paul*.

BALZAC (1799–1850)—a celebrated French novelist—wrote numerous works.

French
Novelists

VICTOR HUGO (1802–1885), was an illustrious French poet, dramatist, novelist, historian and politician, whose best known works are *Notre Dame*, *Les Misérables*, and *Ninety-three*.

ALEXANDRE DUMAS (1803–1870), was a great French novelist and dramatist.

ALEXANDRE DUMAS (1824–1895)—son of the foregoing—was also a great French novelist and dramatist.

DE MAUPASSANT (1850–1893), was a distinguished French novelist.

EMILE ZOLA (1830–1902), was an eminent French novelist.

JULES VERNE (1828–1905), was a renowned French novelist.

RICHTER (1763–1825), was a celebrated German author and humorist.

German
Writers.

AUGUSTUS VON KOTZEBUE (1761–1819)—a great German dramatist—became a Russian subject, and was murdered while Russian Consul-General in Germany.

LUDWIG UHLAND (1787–1862), was a renowned German lyric poet.

German
Poets.

HEINRICH HEINE (1799–1856), was a famous German poet.

WILLIAM VON HUMBOLDT (1767–1835)—brother of Alexander von Humboldt—was a great Prussian statesman and philologist.

German
Philolo-
gists.

FREDERICK and AUGUSTUS WILLIAM SCHLEGEL (1772–1829 and 1767–1845), brothers, were great German philologists, antiquarians and poets.

JACOB and WILLIAM GRIMM (1785–1863 and 1786–1859), brothers—illustrious German philologists and antiquarians—were the founders of the science of comparative philology, and authors of *Teutonic Grammar*, *German Dictionary* and *Household Tales*.

NIEBUHR (1776–1831), was a great German historian and lecturer on Ancient History.

German
Histo-
rians.

NEANDER (1789–1850), was an eminent German church historian.

ROTTECK (1775–1840)—a German statesman and historian—wrote a *History of the World*.

HEEREN (1760–1842), was a great German historian.

SCHLOSSER (1776-1861)—a noted German historian—wrote a *History of the Eighteenth Century*.

LEOPOLD VON RANKE (1795-1886), German, author of *History of the Popes* and a *Universal History*.

THEODORE MOMMSEN (1817-1903)—a very famous German historian—author of a *History of Rome*.

ERNST CURTIUS (1814-1896), German, wrote *History of Greece*.

HERMANN EDUARD VON HOLST (1841-1904), German, wrote *Constitutional History of the United States*.

BUNSEN (1791-1860) was a great Prussian writer and ambassador, author of *God in History*.

PESTALOZZI (1746-1827) was a great Swiss teacher and educational writer.

FROEBEL (1782-1852) was a German educator, founder of the Kindergarten system of education.

KARAMSIN (1765-1826) was a distinguished Russian historian—wrote a *History of the Russian Empire*.

PUSHKIN (1799-1837)— negro descent—was the greatest of Russian poets.

LERMONTOFF (1814-1841) was a famous Russian poet.

ALEXEI TURGENEFF (1785-1845) was a Russian historian.

IVAN TURGENEFF (1818-1883) was a Russian novelist.

SERGIUS STEPNIAK (1851-1895) was a noted Russian political reformer and author, who lived in exile in London after 1876.

COUNT LEO TOLSTOI (1828-1910)—a Russian nobleman—is distinguished as a novelist, a social reformer, a friend of humanity and a mystic.

HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN (1805-1875) was a Danish novelist and story-writer.

FREDRIKA BREMER (1801-1866) was a great Swedish female novelist.

HENRIK IBSEN (1828-1906) was a distinguished Norwegian poet and dramatist.

BJORNSTERNE BJORNSON (1832-1910) is a celebrated Norwegian poet, dramatist and novelist.

BENJAMIN ROBERT HAYDON (1786-1846) was a noted English historical painter, who committed suicide.

JOSEPH M. W. TURNER (1775-1851) was an English historical and landscape painter.

SIR EDWIN LANDSEER (1802-1873) was a celebrated English painter.

SIR JOHN MILLAIS (1829-1896) was a celebrated English landscape and portrait painter.

Other
Late
German
Writers.

Russian
Authors.

Scandi-
navian
Authors.

English
Painters.

GILBERT STUART (1756-1828), was a famous American portrait painter. American Painters.

WASHINGTON ALLSTON (1779-1843), was a great American portrait, landscape and historical painter and author.

HORACE VERNET (1789-1863), was one of the greatest of French painters. French Painters.

GUSTAVE DORÉ (1833-1883), was a distinguished French painter, famous for his illustrations of Dante's works, and of *Don Quixote* and *The Wandering Jew*.

JEAN JOSEPH BENJAMIN CONSTANT (1845-1902), was a famous French portrait painter.

JAMES JOSEPH JACQUES TISSOT (1836-1902), was a renowned French historical painter.

ROSA MARIE BONHEUR (1828-1899), is a French female painter.

WILHELM VON KAULBACH (1805-1874), was the most illustrious modern German painter, whose masterpieces are *The Battle of the Huns* and *The Destruction of Jerusalem*. Other Painters.

MICHEL DE MUNKACSY (1844-1900), was a Hungarian painter.

THORWALDSEN (1770-1844), was a celebrated Danish sculptor. Sculptors.

HARRIET G. HOSMER (born 1830), is an American female sculptor.

BEETHOVEN (1770-1827), was a great German musical composer, among whose oratorios is *The Mount of Olives*, and among whose operas is *Fidelio*. Great German Musical Composers.

WEBER (1786-1826), was a renowned German musical composer, whose greatest work is *Der Freischütz*.

MEYERBEER (1794-1864), was a celebrated German musical composer, whose greatest operas were *Robert le Diable*, *The Huguenots*, *The Prophets* and *L'Africane*.

MENDELSSOHN (1809-1847), was a German-Jewish musical composer, whose chief works are his music for the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, and his sublime oratorios, *St. Paul* and *Elijah*.

WAGNER (1813-1883), was a famous German musical composer, whose great operas are *Tannhauser*, *Lohengrin* and *Meistersinger*.

SCHUBERT (1797-1828), was a great German musical composer.

SCHUMANN (1810-1856), was a great German musical composer.

ROSSINI (1792-1868), Italian, composed operas, *William Tell* and *The Barber of Seville*. Italian Musical Composers.

DONIZETTI (1798-1848), Italian, wrote operas, as *Lucrezia Borgia* and *Lucia di Lammermoor*.

BELLINI (1802-1835), Italian, wrote operas, as *Norma*, *Somnambula* and *The Puritans*.

VERDI (1814-1901), Italian, wrote operas, as *Il Trovatore* and *La Traviata*.

French
and
Russian
Musical
Com-
posers.

AUBER (1782-1871), French musician.

BERLIOZ (1803-1869), Frenchman, wrote numerous operas.

GOUNOD (1818-1893) was the greatest of French musical composers.

RUBINSTEIN (1830-1894) was a renowned Russian musical composer and pianist.

Great
Singers.

JENNY LIND (1821-1887) was a renowned Swedish singer.

CHRISTINE NILSSON (1843-1921) was also a noted Swedish singer.

PAREPA ROSA (1836-1874) was a distinguished English singer.

ADELINA PATTI (born 1843) is a famous operatic singer, born in Madrid.

Keshub
Chunder
Sen in
India.

In India a new religious movement was inaugurated by Keshub Chunder Sen, who founded the *Brahmo Somaj*, a theistic society agreeing with the Unitarians of the Christian world, regarding Jesus as a prophet, and not as a divine personage. In 1879 Keshub Chunder Sen claimed to be a prophet, or a reincarnation of the Divine Spirit, and tried to reconcile the Oriental faiths with Christianity, and organize a new religious system. He formed a preaching army, and secured in a short time hundreds of thousands of proselytes, who were inspired with great religious enthusiasm. Keshub Chunder Sen died in February, 1884.

Moral
Advance-
ment.

The nineteenth century had been a period of great advancement in the condition of the human race morally. Though there is still a great deal of vice and crime, there has been a vast improvement over the past in this respect. In Great Britain and the United States religious organizations and temperance societies have done much to elevate the condition of society in this respect. The spread of popular intelligence has contributed immensely to such moral improvement among the masses.

Improved
Social
Condi-
tion.

The social condition of the masses has gradually improved, though it is not yet as it should be, considering the progress in other directions. Labor organizations in Great Britain, the United States and the other civilized nations of the world have contributed more than any other agency in raising and maintaining the standard of wages and in advancing the social condition of the laboring mass generally.

Beneficial
Influence
of
Railroads
and Tele-
graphs.

The means of communication and intercourse have tended to bring the various portions of mankind more closely together and to harmonize conflicting interests. Railroads and telegraphs have done more within the last half century to bind various parts of each country together than constitutions have done, and the same agencies have done more to spread Christian civilization in barbarous and non-Christian lands than missionaries have done. On the whole, "the world has been growing better."



3870

3872

3878



8265

